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ABSTRACT

Eighteen papers from the University of South Africa's Conference on Distance Education are presented. They include: "Effective Second Language Reading in a Cross-Cultural Society" (Irma Zaslansky); "A BA Degree in Social Sciences at the Israel Open University" (Ruth Beyth-Marom); "Establishing a Theological Education by Extension Programme in Southern Africa: An Evaluation of the First Ten Years" (Kate Hughes); "Aural and Oral" (Peter Haffter); "Music Education Through UNISA--Past, Present and Future" (Douglas Reid); "Visual Media and Art History" (Rayda Becker); "Tutoring for the Open University" (S.G. Kossick); "Practical English: A Strategy for the Future" (Barrie Goedhals); "Special Language Communication" (P.H. Swanepoel); "Teaching Afrikaans to UNISA Students" (Anna-Mart Schwerdtfeger); "How Did Distance Education in Music Become a Success at UNISA?" (Bernard S. van der Linde); "Distance Teaching within the Department of African Languages" (J.W. Snyman); "Participant or Student: The School of Business Leadership Experience" (J.W. Grobbelaar); "Economics in the Distance-Teaching Situation: Problems and Approaches" (Philip Mohr); "Post Graduate Studies in Law through Distance Teaching: The UNISA Approach" (Pierre E.J. Brooks); "Distance Education in Astronomy--A Challenge" (W.F. Wargau); "Chemistry, Its Practical Component and Distance Education" (G. McGillivray); and "Practical Theology and Distance Tuition" (Jacques P.J. Theron). (LB)

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PAPERS 6

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Systems and strategies in distance education

DISTANCE EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA: PREPARING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

18 - 21 MAY 1987

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PREFACE

The conference papers to be presented at the University of South Africa's Conference on Distance Education are contained in a number of volumes for easy reference. The papers have been collected according to basic themes as follows:

The theory and practice of distance education	**Papers 1**
Issues in education and distance education	**Papers 2**
Media and technology in distance education	**Papers 3.1, 3.2**
Professional education and practical training at a distance	**Papers 4.1, 4.2**
Administration and student support in distance education	**Papers 5**
Systems and strategies in distance education	**Papers 6**

This is Volume 6 of the papers. The table of contents lists the papers in this volume in order of abstract numbers.

In the alphabetical index all participants' names, the abstract number of their paper, the session allocated and the volume in which the paper is published can be found. Not mentioned are papers that may be published in Volume 7 entitled "Late Submissions".

F. van den Bogaerde
CONFERENCE CHAIRMAN

KEY

ABSTRACTS

1000 SERIES — Participants from Africa and Abroad
2000 SERIES — Participants from southern Africa
3000 SERIES — Participants from the University of South Africa

3100 — Administrative and Professional
3200 — Faculty of Arts
3300 — Faculty of Education
3400 — Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
3500 — Faculty of Law
3600 — Faculty of Science
3700 — Faculty of Theology

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PAPERS

1008*

EFFECTIVE SECOND LANGUAGE READING IN A CROSS CULTURAL SOCIETY

Irma Zaslansky
Haifa University

The purpose of the workshop is to demonstrate different ways of getting students to read, understand and reproduce ideas from various texts. Once techniques for maximum comprehension are formulated and developed, students can apply this knowledge to any reading situation in whatever field they may be studying.

This paper is based on personal experience with students whose native language (L1) is not English and who come from varied cultural backgrounds, and on "Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language" by Christine Nuttall.

According to Nuttall, the aims of a reading programme should be "to enable students to read, without help, unfamiliar authentic texts at appropriate speed, silently and with adequate understanding." [1] It is necessary to teach generalised skills for reading all kinds of texts. Communication is achieved through a process of encoding and decoding between writer and reader. They must share certain assumptions about the world and the way it works. Problems with understanding arise when there is an imbalance between the presuppositions of the writer and those of the reader. Arab students are influenced by their poetic language, which has elaborate and intricate richness requiring certain connotations and implications in meaning. This could be a reason for circumvention in expressing a point of view or answering a question. Coming to the point directly is a skill they have to learn, and forms a linguistic bridging of a cultural gap. Conservative and traditional social environment forms a barrier when transferring subjective expectations to the meaning in a text. South American students confront lexical problems with words that appear to be familiar to them but in fact have different meanings.

Due to the different backgrounds one can never understand one another totally. Poor readers often do not recognise that they have not understood but once they recognise that there are problems, they have overcome the first step towards competence in reading. Efficient readers also learn that reading is an interactive process that demands clear intentions from the writer who does not always know who his audience will be. If the writer is careless, then the message is impossible to receive. A reader's sense and experience helps predict what the writer is likely to say next because he shares many of the writer's presuppositions. This has advantages as well as disadvantages, especially when the students are confronted with a controversial article which does not, in fact, fulfill their expectations. Writers of authentic texts do not cater to non-native English speaking populations and may leave out many overt and covert markers. Therefore, students must do the work in analysing the texts. One skill would be to apply a "psycholinguistic guessing game" where hypotheses are modified by new hypotheses so ideas must be reread and thoughts readjusted.

[1] Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language - Christine Nuttall - P.21

Two important aspects in reading are what Nuttall calls "signification" and "value". There must be a reason why a statement has been made and the reader has to interpret its value correctly. An isolated sentence has signification only, while a sentence in context has value and signification. A text becomes coherent when there is a relationship between various elements in a story. These cohesive devices comprise many things such as sequence of tenses, reference, substitution, ellipses, lexical relationships and connectives. An understanding and awareness of these devices is what the student requires as an essential tool for maximum comprehension. Students, however, tend to relate to "grammar" as an indispensable aid in its isolated form and have to be weaned from the "present perfect" exercise as such, onto the value and meaning as it appears in context.

The information gap between the reader and the writer can be bridged through a process of negotiation of meaning. New knowledge can be assimilated by means of formerly existing knowledge. Because reading is a complex, multi-levelled, interactive, compensatory process, understanding a text involves four kinds of meaning:

a) Conceptual meaning, which is the meaning of a word on its own.

b) Propositional meaning is the meaning when concepts are put together to form propositions. This is signification or sense where the meaning can stand on its own without any context. For example - the word "marriages" has no propositional meaning but "arranged marriages are accepted" is a statement that can be denied, questioned, opposed, accepted, etc.

c) Contextual meaning, is the meaning of a sentence in context which is the functional meaning of the statement. The writer has organised his thoughts into patterns which combine into larger patterns until the main idea has been reached with the writer's message. "Arranged marriages are accepted" is a generalisation but "I will not tell my daughter to marry the person I choose..she must make her own choice" is a judgement made about arranged marriages which the writer is conveying.

d) Pragmatic meaning is part of the interaction between the writer and the reader. Here the reader has to understand the attitudes, feelings and intentions of the writer.

Another handy skill for readers is the application of what Christine Nuttall calls "Non-text Information" which is information that is not actually in the text itself. This includes:-

a) Reference apparatus such as titles, index, blurbs. Having read the title or index the student should be able to predict to some extent what the thrust of the text will be. The ability to predict is an aid to understanding and a sign of it. Students from a cross-cultural society are often hindered because their presuppositions come from backgrounds that are sometimes quite different from that of the writer.

b) Graphic conventions - layout, punctuation, type face and use of symbols. However obvious this may seem to sophisticated readers, in Israel, where Arabic and Hebrew have a completely different writing system from the

English, students have difficulties with the unfamiliar conventions of spaces between lines, quotations, indentation, different type face and punctuation. Punctuation, such an obvious element in the English language, and closely connected with meaning, is frequently overlooked and ignored. Students have to be taught skills to take advantage of these non-text aids.

c) Non-verbal information such as maps, diagrams, illustrations and tables are also study skills that facilitate the task of reading.

Effective reading includes recognising the functional value of the text by the implications and suppositions of the writer - that is what the writer means without explicitly stating it. Here the reader must learn the technique of defining, classifying, generalising and speculating. It is important for students to go through various texts and notice how the functional value of the utterances is determined by their relationship with one another. It often happens that the reader cannot see a connection between two statements. This is due to the writer making mistaken assumptions about the reader's knowledge or to the reader's inability to draw the correct inferences. Presuppositions are thus divided into two groups:

a) knowledge and experience that the writer expects from the reader, and

b) attitudes, opinions and emotions that the reader is expected to share with the writer.

Making inferences and recognising implications is an advanced skill that should be encouraged and developed. Students must interpret reference and substitution such as, he, it, this, those, one, etc., because wrongly identified reference leads to misinterpretation. Similarly, the interpretation of elliptical expressions, where the reader is not given more information than he needs, is valuable. Ellipsis causes confusion as there seems to be a gap in the coherence of the statements to the unskilled reader. The reader has to get information from somewhere else in the text, whether consciously or unconsciously.

In my opinion, one of the most important skills for efficient reading and for guessing meaning is the identification of connectives or discourse markers. Great emphasis is placed on the value of the connectives because they establish the relationship between the different parts of the text. They can be placed into three main classes:

a) those that indicate the sequence in which a reported event occurs;

b) those that show the writer's manner of organising his text or discourse;

c) those which are an indication of the writer's view of the facts and ideas about which he writes.

The structure of the text is "hierarchical". A whole unit is composed of separate sections each of which has some form of internal structure and cohesiveness. Application of the reading skills should get the student to be able to understand the overall message of the text. This is what

Christine Nuttall terms "Integration and Application". In addition to evaluation, the reader must be able to distinguish between

"a) important and unimportant points, and supporting details;
b) fact and opinion;-
c) relevance and irrelevance;
d) sound and unsound conclusions; adequate and inadequate evidence; valid and invalid inference;
e) hypothesis, evidence, inference and conclusion;
f) general (all), restricted (some), and particular (reference to an individual);
g) certainty, probability, possibility, necessity and their absence;
h) causes, effects, purposes, conditions." [2].

Taking all these skills into consideration, a reading comprehension lesson should consist of three sections.

a) Pre-reading; prediction, evoking pre-knowledge, skimming activities, exploring the universe of the text, that is, who wrote it, when, who was it written for.

b) While reading: i) text-centered - opinions, argument, sequence, comparison.
ii) strategy-centered .

c) Post reading; processes of evaluation and critical reading.

The workshop will provide an opportunity to apply a variety of methods to the development of study skills. It is to be borne in mind that the specific approach in any special teaching situation must be tailored, ultimately, to the individul cross-cultural society in which the teaching takes place, and that can only be done, as we have found in Israel, by taking note of the special characteristics of the students, their cultures and backgrounds. Whatever the society may be, however, the object is the same - to speed up the process whereby the writer makes contact with his reader (or vice versa), and that that contact be invested with the maximum of qualitative and quantitative substance. Once we will have succeeded in establishing the methodology, it should be possible for the method to be transplanted into different cross-cultural societies.

[2] Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language. Christine Nuttall. Page 123.

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A B.A. Degree in Social Sciences at the Israeli Open University

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ISRAEL

May, 1987

A B.A. Degree in Social Sciences at the Israeli Open University

The Israeli Open University (IOU) was established in 1976 with the purpose of enabling capable students from distant areas or lacking a matriculation certificate to study for a B.A. degree, without having to pass an entrance exam. Students could get either a degree in Humanities and Social Sciences or in Natural and Life Sciences. This broad definition of a B.A. degree was not only a "childhood desease", caused by the limited number of courses available in the first few years, but also a recognized policy of the University. The aim was to offer the students not only a unique (distant) learning experience, but also a broad and interdisciplinary education.

The Open University was thus not only open to all, anywhere, at whatever pace of study, but first and faremost open to accept the student's choice of curriculum. Having decided his general trend (Natural and Life Sciences or Humanities and Social Sciences) the student was free to choose nearly every combination of courses he wanted, as long as they were divided properly according to their academic level (not more than six credits for introductory courses, and not less than four credits for advanced-seminar courses). Students could accumulate the 18 requisite credits for a B.A. degree by studying courses in education, art, economics, sociology, history, psychology and Jewish studies.

However, with the growth of the university some trends caused us to add to the two broad B.A. degrees, two more limited degrees : a B.A. in Humanities and a B.A. in Social Sciences.

A B.A.degree in Social Sciences: A rationale

During the ten years since the establishment of the university, about 200 courses have been developed, divided equally, more or less, between Natural and Life Sciences and Humanities and Social Sciences. Of the hundred courses in Humanities and Social Sciences, about 35 are Social Sciences courses, granting alltogether about 30 credits. Such a number of courses is enough to allow a students to focus their studies on Social Sciences only. These students prefer to have a degree in their specialized field of study. In few years, when even more courses are developed, the university will probably award more specific degrees, such as a B.A. in Psychology or in History.

This trend does not impair the original spirit of the university to offer broad and interdisciplinary degrees, since this possibility still exists for those students who wish to study toward such a degree. Allowing diverse degrees for a very heterogenous population, is thus another demonstration of openness.

In 1982 the first students finished their studies and got their B.A. degree. Since then the number of graduates has been increasing steadily. A substantial number of these students express their wish to continue their studies toward a Masters degree. The IOU does not provide graduate studies yet. However, its policy must take into account the needs of students who wish to continue to graduate studies in conventional universities in Israel. A Masters degree is always in a specific discipline. Excellent students, but with a broad interdisciplinary degree, have difficulties in getting accepted to

graduate programs since they don't have enough credits in the specific area they are interested in. A degree in Social Sciences or in Humanities may ease this problem.

Since 1982 a considerable number of IOU students study in "organized groups": each cosisting of students from the same institution (e.g. the army, a major bank), who study together with the psychological, financial & tutorial help of their institution. About 35% of IOU students now study in such organized groups. Most institutions prefer that their students learn Social Sciences, as these are most relevant to their occupation. Moreover, many of these groups would have preferred more specific degrees, such as in "Economy and Managment" or in "Behavioral Sciences". A B.A. degree in Social Sciences was thus an answer to a need expressed by many IOU students.

A B.A. degree in Social Sciences: A charaterization

Table 1 presents a two dimensional classification of the courses the university offers in Social Sciences. They are classified according to subject (General Studies, Behavioral Sciences, Economy and Management, Political Science and International Relations), and according to academic level (introductory courses, intermediate courses, advanced-seminar courses). The number in brackets indicates the number of credits the course awards.

Table 1

List of IOU Courses in Social Sciences

	General Studies	Behavioral Sciences	Economics & Management	Political Science & International Relat.
Introductory Courses	*Introduction to Statistics Probability, & Inference(1)	*Introduction to Psycho.(1) *Introduction to Socio. (1)	*Introduction to Micro-Eco(1) *Inrtroduction to Macro-Eco(1)	
Intermediate Courses	*Research Met--hods in the Social Sce.(1)	*Introduction to Social Ps--ychology(1) *Psychlogical Testing(1) *Israeli Soc--iety(1) *Personality theories(1\2) *Educational Psychology(1) *Cognitive Psychology(1) *Social Devi--ation(1) *The Psychology of sex differe--nces(1\2) *Special Educ--ation(1)	*Macroecono.(1) *Financial The--ory(1) *Financial Man--agement of bus--iness firms(1) *Human Resource Management(1) *Marketing Man--agement(1) *Basic Account--ing(1) *Price theory(1)	*Basic concepts in International rela--tion(1) *Democracies & Dic--tatorships in the 20th century(1) *The imergence of New States in Afri--ca(1)
Advanced-Seminar Courses		*Imagination & Dreams(1) *Thinking und--er uncertain--ty(1)	*Social Respon--sibility in Management(1) *Economic equi--libruim(1)	*Selected problems regarding the jewi--sh community in the U.S.A.(1) *Black Africa in international rela--tion(1) *Regims & Politics in Black Africa(1) *The conditions for The rise & fall of Democra. regimes(1) *Israeli foreign Policy(1) *Selected issues in modern democrac.(1) *Religion & Politic (1) *Ethiopia in the new era(1)

The Table presents only available courses or those scheduled to be ready during 1987. Few more courses are in various stages of development, and many more are in planning and will be developed as soon as the right person or team is found to do so.

Course level: Introductory courses (e.g. Introduction to Psychology, Introduction to Statistics) are equivalent to first year courses in a conventional university and intermediate courses, in the most part, to second year courses. Both kinds of courses are specially written (in Hebrew) for distant learning. All study material, which is divided into study units, is sent to the student along with 6-10 assignments and a time-table for studing each unit, for sending the assignments, for tutorial meetings and for the final exam.

The advanced-seminar courses have no uniform sturcture. Some are specially written for distant learning, and except for being more advanced and based on wider prior knowledge, are similar in structure to the introductory and intermediate courses. However, most of the advanced-seminar courses are formed differently. Usually they include a collection of artiacles, reviews and textbook chapters, along with a detailed Study-guide. The student must prove proficiency in the background material before he is assigned to an expert tutor (a senior lecturer) under whose guidness he chooses a theme for a seminar paper, reads the required literature and writes the paper. This course sturcture allows to update the literature the student will read whenever we feel it is needed, with little effort and expense. The advanced - seminar courses are distict in another respect: In contrast to the introductory and intermediate courses, a student can be

accepted to an advanced - seminar course only after having been awarded six credits, some of which for specific courses. For example, a student can be accepted to "Thinking under uncertainty" (an advanced-seminar course in Psychology) only after having accumulated six credits, half of which in the following courses: Introduction to Statistics, Cognitive Psychology and Research Methods in the Social Sciences.

Course subject: The courses in Social Sciences can be roughly divided into three subdivisions: Behavioral Sciences (i.e. Psychology and Sociology), Economey and Managment, and Political Science and International relations. As yet a student cannot focus on one of these subdevisions, since there are not enough available courses in each to award him 18 credits (as needed for a B.A. degree). However, in a year or two this possibility will probably materialize, at least in the Behavioral Sciences.

In addition to the courses presented under each of the above mentioned subdevisions, there are three general courses two of which acquaint the student with the methodology of Social Sciences: (1) Introduction to Statistics, Probability and Inference and (2) Research Methods in the Social Sciences. The third course (English Reading Comprehension for Social Sciences Students) prepares the student for the advanced - seminar courses, where most of the study material is in English. The student can either register for that course, if he feels he needs it, or pass an exemption-exam if he is convinced of his English proficiency.

A B.A. degree in Social Sciences: Requirements

Although the openness of the IOU is a fundamental principle we want to follow, it cannot come before academic proficiency. If a student prefers to focus his studies on Social Sciences only, he will have to meet some requirements.

1. Like all students of the IOU, he will have to accumulate not more than 6 credits in introductory courses and not less than 4 in advanced-seminar courses (in two of which he will have to write a seminar paper). He will need a total of 18 credits for a B.A. degree.

2. Like all students of the IOU he will have to prove his proficiency in English.

3. Fourteen of the 18 credits will have to be in Social Sciences. The additional 4 can be in any subject the student chooses.

4. Three of the 4 advanced-seminar credits have to be in Social Sciences, including the two seminar papers.

5. The Social Sciences student will have to pass the two methodology courses: Statistics and Research Methods.

6. The Social Sciences student will have to pass three out of four introductory courses: Introduction to Psychology, Introduction to Sociology, Introduction to Economics and Introduction to Politidcal Science. Since the latter has not yet been developed, students can

meanwhile choose either "Democracies and Dictatorships in the 20th century" or "Basic Concepts in International Relations".

These requirements ensure that a student with a B.A. degree in Social Sciences is thoroughly knowledgeable in the methodology of the field, and has basic knowledge in its main subjects. Naturally, the methodology courses were developed to suit all Social Sciences students. Thus, the Research Method course is very comprehensive; it includes, for example, three different research styles practiced frequently by Anthropologtists (Ethnography), Sociologists (Surveys) and Psychologists (Experiments). Furthermore, to exemplify the different research styles and principles, students are required to read articles (mainly research reports) in Behavioral Sciences, in Managment and in Political Science.

A B.A. degree in Social Sciences: Future trends

What should we aim for? One objective is to invest our efforts in the development of more courses specially written for distant learning, to complete the basic curriculum in each descipline. Special attention should be given to the promotion of interdisciplinary courses which will be unique to the IOU.

As the IOU has already a significant bulk of courses, part of its efforts should be channeled in a new direction. Social Sciences must involve some laboratory and field work. The students must gain experience in some of the work the social scientist is doing: asking questions, searching for possible answers, planning a research

project, running an experiment, formulating a questionnaire, observing social interactions. In many of the courses developed for distant learning students perform small scale field work or experiments. However, no special effort has been directed towards this goal. In Natural and Life Sciences courses of the IOU, students have already kits for experiments, laboratory meetings and special laboratory courses. The Social Sciences are far behind in that respect. This is a goal we should now strive for.

2003

ESTABLISHING A THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION BY EXTENSION PROGRAMME IN SOUTHERN AFRICA: AN EVALUATION OF THE FIRST TEN YEARS

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As a preliminary note, I should perhaps make clear that this evaluation of the work, achievements and failures of the Theological Education by Extension College is a personal view. I have tried to draw reasonable conclusions from the available evidence and my own experience, but others might reach different conclusions from the same evidence. Writing as one who has been closely associated with the College for 10 years, as both student and staff member, I have done my best to make this personal evaluation more than merely a subjective impression. I hope it will also be a contribution to the ongoing life and growth of the College.

1. THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION BY EXTENSION

Education for ministry and leadership in the Christian Church has had a fluctuating career. In the earliest days, leadership was merely a matter of charism (gift) and vocation (calling). Gradually, a measure of formal education was required for the clergy, and as the centuries passed the clergy became virtually the only leaders in the local church and an academic university training in theology an essential prerequisite. Residential theological seminaries in their present form, where training in theology and training for pastoral ministry are the direct responsibility of the Churches, are largely the

product of the 19th century. Any residential institution is expensive to operate, limited in the numbers it can accommodate, and if the institution is a theological college, tends to elitism. A trained, theologically competent, ordained priest or minister becomes the leader in his or her congregation, and for many years this has been accepted as the norm in many Churches (especially the historic European Churches).

However, by the middle of the present century a number of Churches in many parts of the world were beginning to question this traditional approach. In many countries such as those of Western Europe, the number of students in residential seminaries dropped sharply; in other areas, notably Latin America and Asia, new congregations sprang up in enormous numbers and the residential seminaries could not hope to train sufficient ministers to serve them. At the same time, many of the Churches began to rediscover the role of the laity in the local congregation and to institute training programmes for lay leaders. All these factors led to a questioning of the traditional one-man or one-woman leadership of the 'professional' ordained priest or minister, who often seemed to be educated away from the rural or urban slum congregation he or she went to serve, and as a result to be unable to respond theologically to the real problems of everyday life.

The situation in Africa at this time was summed up thus:

1. We are not training enough leaders.
2. We are not training the real leaders.
3. The cost of training is too high.
4. Traditional training in residential schools segregates prospective leaders so they become professionals.
5. We are training men in irrelevant concepts.

(1)

The result of this questioning and concern was the development of Theological Education by Extension (TEE) as an alternative and complementary method of leadership training which enabled the natural leaders of the local congregation, who could not leave their work, family and church responsibilities to go away to seminary, to receive theological training. The pioneering programme for this type of theological education was developed by Dr. Ralph Winter in Guatemala in 1963. Since then, TEE has spread throughout the Christian world.

Specific methods of approach and levels of study may vary according to the target audience and local conditions, but all TEE programmes share three basic components:

1. Written lesson material which the student studies at home on his or her own, and which therefore has a self-instructional format.
2. Regular meetings locally with a tutor and other students in a seminar situation.
3. Field work or field experience, provided by the life and work which the student carries on while studying.

In practice a particular TEE programme may consist at local level, by way of example, of half a dozen men and women of varying ages who are already leaders in their local congregations in a rural area. Each week they study the same lessons at home, and then meet together in a fairly central place once a week with a tutor. The tutor may be a local person who has the skills required to help the students and works on a voluntary basis; or he or she may be a full-time paid tutor who leads seminars in a number of local centres; or the tutor may have travelled to the local meeting from the centre of the TEE programme some distance away in a city or at a residential seminary. At the meeting, the

tutor and the students will learn together how they can use what they have studied in the previous week in the situations and problems which they meet daily in their ministry in the local congregation.

More important, however, than the basic practical components of a TEE programme is the methodological approach. Above all TEE is a specific approach to doing theology. Occasionally TEE programmes have been regarded simply as a way of extending the resources of a residential theological seminary to nonresidential students; but this is a fundamental misunderstanding of the concept of extension. For the Christian (and for those seeking an authentic Christian faith), theology is not (or should not be) a purely academic study whose aim is to acquire knowledge. Rather it is, in the literal meaning of the word, aimed at the understanding of God, a growing awareness of who God is and how he works in his world, in history, in society and in my own life, which leads to a growing ability to interpret his will and purpose in particular situations.

Doing theology by extension is not simply another medium for acquiring theological knowledge; it is itself part of the theological message which is taught. "Extension says that theological studies should not be limited by barriers of age, sex, race, previous education, money, social status, employment, in addition to barriers of an institutional setting." (2) Extension makes theological statements about leadership and ministry in the Church, the importance of context and the right and duty of every Christian to participate in theologizing. If doing theology by extension is in itself teaching a theological message, then it must influence the form and content of the three basic components of the TEE medium: lesson material, seminar meetings and field experience. A fundamental question, therefore, in evaluating any TEE programme is: Does the medium convey the message?

I have explained the concept of theological education by extension at some length because I believe that unless the characteristics peculiar to this way of doing theology are clearly grasped, any evaluation of a particular TEE programme will be meaningless.

2. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A TEE PROGRAMME IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

From its Guatemalan beginnings, TEE spread throughout South America and then to North America, Asia and Europe. In South Africa in 1975, the Joint Board for the Diploma in Theology of Southern Africa, which moderates the Dip.Th. taken at the residential seminaries of several of the major Churches, appointed a small committee to investigate the possibilities of a TEE programme for Southern Africa. The work of this committee was taken up by the National Committee for Theological Education (the theological division of the South African Council of Churches) and its findings were embodied in a report to the SACC and its member Churches, recommending the setting up of a TEE programme in Southern Africa. At a meeting of all interested parties in Johannesburg on 23 March 1976, under the chairmanship of Dr. Axel-Ivar Bergland, the Director of the National Committee for Theological Education, it was formally agreed to set up a TEE programme, and Fr. Louis Peters O.P. was appointed acting National Director with responsibility for taking the necessary steps to get the programme started. His appointment as Director was later made permanent.

The National TEE Programme, as it was called initially, was originally sponsored by the Church of the Province of South Africa (Anglican), The Federation of Evangelical Lutheran Churches of Southern Africa, the Roman Catholic Church and the United Congregational Church of Southern Africa. The Methodist Church of Southern Africa had observer status for the first year, but then became a

full sponsoring church by making an annual grant to what by then had become the Theological Education by Extension College (Southern Africa). At the inaugural meeting in March 1976, a National Committee had been formed, consisting of representatives of the sponsoring Churches, other interested observer Churches and a number of consultants. At the same meeting, the new committee accepted the following statement of the aims and objectives of TEE (the statement seems to make no distinction between TEE as a method, in items 1, 2 and 4, and the TEE programme to be embodied in the TEE College, in items 3 and 5):

1. The purpose of TEE is training in Christian living, witness and service by extension methods on an ecumenical basis.
2. TEE is designed to assist the natural leaders in the Church equip themselves for a more effective ministry (a ministry that is to be understood in the widest possible sense).
3. The TEE programme will be designed to meet the needs of the Churches for theological training for the following persons:
   a) those already in various lay ministries needing further training or preparing for it,
   b) lay people who need to be equipped with a theology which will enable them to work out a Christian response in their situation,
   c) those whom the churches have chosen for training for the ordained ministry outside the residential seminaries.
4. Because TEE must be contextual and because of the lack of experience in contextual education, an important function of the scheme is the training of local tutors in the methods of contextual education. The scheme will also facilitate the provision of contextualized

materials.

5. TEE should provide theological education for as wide a range of educational levels as possible, but that initially courses should be prepared at a basic level (Stds 5 to J.C.) and also for students who could be accorded a Diploma in Theology.

The fifth aim, concerning educational levels, took the practical form of providing courses and written material at three distinct educational levels:

Award level for students with Std 5-6 education.
Certificate level for students with Std 8 (JC) education.
Diploma level for students with a minimum of Std 10 education.

The syllabus and accreditation for the Award and Certificate are the responsibility of the TEE College itself. For the Diploma level of study, the College became a constituent member in 1976 of the Joint Board for the Diploma in Theology (Southern Africa), an ecumenical body which supervises and moderates the diploma taken by students in the residential seminaries of all the TEE College's sponsoring Churches (with the exception of the Roman Catholic Church).

The new College, with a very small staff, established itself in modest offices in Johannesburg and after 9 months of preparation during 1976, writing and printing the first course material, setting up administrative procedures and publicizing the College, the first students enrolled in January 1977.

3. SUBSEQUENT HISTORY OF THE TEE COLLEGE.

The total number of students in the first year (including new students who registered in June to study the shorter Certificate and Award courses in the second half of the year) was 372; the largest group of students (179) enrolled at Diploma level. By the following year the number of students had doubled to over 800, the College moved to larger premises in Braamfontein and the staff increased to meet the pressing demands of course writing and production, care of the students, administration, and the promotion of TEE among African Independent Churches.

Student numbers increased steadily over the next few years, reaching a peak of over 1200 in 1981; during the same period, the highest group of enrolments shifted from the Diploma level to the Award level (see Appendix 1). The rapid growth of the College, and the need for salaries for additional staff and more courses to meet the varied requirements of the students, led to financial difficulties which were temporarily solved in 1980 by a substantial loan from two church organisations. Louis Peters resigned as Director in December 1982 and was succeeded by Rev. Johann Kromberg.

The rapid growth of the College also placed an increasing strain on its administration, which was exacerbated by lack of finance to employ more staff to alleviate the problem. The financial affairs of the College reached breaking-point in the middle of 1983: income from student fees, which were kept as low as possible to enable maximum availability for TEE studies, was less than one-third of the annual budget; some overseas donors were feeling that a college which had been in existence for seven years should require less outside funding; none of the capital of the 1980 loan had been repaid and though the interest was low, it still constituted a large annual expenditure. By August 1983 there was very real doubt that the College would be able

to continue. Student numbers had dropped to below 700, which eased the administrative problems but did nothing to help the budget. A number of staff left and could not be replaced for financial reasons, which increased the burden on those who remained. In September 1983 Johann Kromberg resigned as Director for personal reasons. At this point in its history, the TEE College was without a Director, without adequate funding, understaffed and in debt. The future looked not simply bleak but non-existent.

What brought the College a fresh start was the realization by its sponsoring Churches (which now included the Evangelical Lutheran Church of South Africa) that study through TEE had become such an integral part of their training programmes that the College had to survive. If it ceased to exist, the Churches would simply have to re-invent it to meet their needs. A rescue operation was launched: this included increased donations from the sponsoring Churches; a campaign for renewed support from overseas donors; stringent economies and budgetting, and the freezing of all vacant staff positions; the Executive Committee of the College Council took a far more active role in the administration of the College, meeting monthly and in constant touch with the Heads of the Administration, Academic and African Independent Churches Departments who were given responsibility for the day to day running of the College until a new Director could be appointed; Louis Peters, the founder and first Director of the College, who was still working in Johannesburg, gave generous help with fund-raising and as a consultant.

Slowly, throughout 1984, the College began to recover. The present Director, Rev. Brian Banwell, was appointed in October and took up his post in January 1985. The financial position began to improve, new staff were employed to fill the vacancies held over from 1983, and from fighting for survival the College gradually moved to

a position where it could begin to grow and develop again. Student numbers stayed fairly static at around 700 between 1983-1986, allowing the administration to be strengthened and improved. By the end of 1986, the TEE College had fully recovered from the setbacks of 1983, and had indeed benefitted from the measures taken to counteract them. Through all the ups and downs of the College's existence, its students have continued to study theology and equip themselves for lay and ordained ministry; since the first Diploma student graduated in 1981, 39 students have successfully completed the Diploma, 35 the Certificate and 24 the Award.

I have gone into some detail in giving the history of the first 10 years of the TEE College because what has happened to the College during this time has had a profound influence on the form and quality of the service it has offered as a theological education by extension programme. Any realistic evaluation of this programme must take account of these factors.

4. PRESENT FUNCTIONING OF TEE COLLEGE.

The present functioning of the TEE College has two main aspects: the work of the central office in Johannesburg, and the extension programme throughout Southern Africa (Lesotho, Namibia, the Republic of South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe).

The work of the central office in Johannesburg is divided into the following functions:

1. Director
2. Registrar: student registrations, records and results.
3. Student Co-ordination: problems of students, marking of scripts, setting up examination

centres, finding and training tutors in areas which do not have a Regional Co-ordinator.

4. Finance, together with printing and despatch of study material.
5. Course Development: course writing, editing and typing of new courses; evaluation and revision of existing courses.
6. Khanya: an affiliated TEE training programme for leaders in African Independent Churches, inaugurated in 1985.

All these central office functions are closely interconnected, and a partial cause of the administrative problems which have constantly beset the College is that a hold-up in one department (for example, a course writer falling behind schedule) can severely hamper the functioning of all the other departments.

The extension function of the TEE College takes place through

1. Students: from all major Churches and most ethnic groups; some using TEE for training for the ordained ministry of their Church, others studying for their own lay ministry and Christian growth.
2. Tutors: voluntary workers whose function is to help the students understand and contextualize their studies, through -
3. Local student meetings: ideally the students in each district should meet as a group with their tutor at least every two weeks.
4. Regional Co-ordinators: the function of the Regional Co-ordinator is to be a local, on-the-spot intermediary between the College's Johannesburg office and the student, and to

localize some of the administrative functions of the office such as finding and training tutors. The Regional Co-ordinators also help to make the Churches in their area more aware of what the TEE College has to offer.

5. COURSE MATERIAL.

The written material produced by the TEE College falls into three categories:

1. Course material at all three levels of study, Award, Certificate and Diploma, covering doctrine, church history, pastoral theology and spirituality, as well as biblical studies.
2. Study Aids to help the students make the best use of their course material by improving their study, reading and writing skills.
3. Short courses, based on small sections of the existing course material, and designed for use by parish study groups without formal registration as students of TEE College.

1. Course material (see Appendix 2)

(a) Award level

As the Award level is designed for students with Std 5-6 education, courses at this level need to be written in simple English with abstract concepts clearly explained - but remembering that the courses are intended for adults, many of whom have heavy responsibilities in their family, their work-place and their local church. The lay-out of the page is important for students for whom the written word is not a very familiar medium. The usual format of the Award courses is a well-spaced page of text followed by

questions which enable the students to check their understanding of what has been read. The lessons are made up of about 5-10 pages of text and are grouped together in A4 size workbooks of 3 or 6 lessons each. All Award courses last a quarter of a year (an effective 2 months of study of approximately 24 lessons) or half a year (4 months of study of 48 lessons). The students are tested by means of monthly Review Tests. The Award takes about 3 years to complete.

At present the TEE College publishes 9 Award courses, of which the students need to study 8 in order to complete the Award. All 9 courses are available in English and Afrikaans, and 5 courses are translated into two or more African languages (Pedi, Sotho, Tswana, Xhosa or Zulu).

(b) Certificate level

This level of study is designed for those with Std 8 (JC) education. Most of the courses last half a year, though there are also two full-year courses, one in doctrine and the other combining New Testament study and preaching. The half year courses have an average of 48 lessons, each about 10 pages in length, text interspersed with questions and exercises. The method of assessment is classwork assignments made up of short questions and/or essays, and a final assignment or three hour examination.

Certificate courses are particularly well suited to lay people in parishes, as they are informative and challenging but short enough to sustain attention and motivation. They are also used by some Churches for preparing ordained ministers or permanent deacons. The Certificate can be com-

pleted in 3 years, with the study of 12 half-year courses.

At present, the College publishes 17 Certificate courses. 8 of these are half-year courses with full written lesson notes; 2 are full-year courses; and 7 use a textbook from the TEF Study Guide series published by SPCK specifically for readers in Africa and Asia, together with a plan of study. Certificate courses are available only in English.

(c) Diploma level

Intended for students with Std 10 education or higher, this is the most academic level of TEE College study. The syllabus is set by the constituent colleges of the Joint Board for the Diploma in Theology of Southern Africa, which include the TEE College. All the courses last a year and demand a high level of commitment and some skill in studying; all use textbooks in addition to the written lecture material supplied by the College. 13 courses are needed to complete the Diploma; most students take between 5 and 8 years to finish their studies. Diploma courses are assessed by classwork essay assignments and either a final research project or extended essay, or a 3 hour examination.

To date, 15 Diploma courses have been published, 14 of them with full written lecture material, and one using excellent textbooks with a study plan.

2. Study Aids

Many of the TEE College students come from a poor educational background. This is particularly true of the approximately

50% of the students who are black; but many of the other students were not adequately taught at school to read intelligently, study systematically on their own or write essays. In an attempt to better equip the students to study more effectively, the TEE College has published the following short books as aids to study:

How to Study
How to Write Assignments and Exams
A Theological Word List
Using a Dictionary
Using the Good News Bible

The first two Study Aids are supplied free of charge to all new students at Diploma and Certificate levels; the others can be purchased at minimal cost.

3. Short Courses

The TEE College publishes 8 short courses designed for use by parish groups who do not register as full TEE students. The courses are simply a service from the College to the local church. The present short courses are all adaptations, between 3 and 12 lessons in length, of self-contained sections of longer Diploma and Certificate courses. They deal with such topics as prayer, bible reading, marriage counselling, alcoholism, basic doctrine, bible study and the concept of law and punishment.

6. THE PRESENT STATE OF THE TEE COLLEGE.

At the end of its 10th year of existence, 1986, the TEE College had a staff of 17 full-time workers (including 5 in the Khanya AIC department) and 6 part-time workers. The student body during the year numbered 703, of whom 308 studied at Diploma level, 270 at Certificate and 125 at Award. The students were helped by 154 tutors and 8

Regional Co-ordinators based in Lesotho, Zululand, Durban, Port Elizabeth, Cape Town, Namibia, Umtata and Southern Zimbabwe. In keeping with the general pattern of the past 10 years, over half the students did not have English as their first language and most of them were aged between 30 and 50.

The material produced by the TEE College has been used as the initial resource material for ecumenical TEE programmes in Zambia and Malawi; both these programmes are now developing their own material. The TEE College material is also currently being used as a basis for new TEE programmes in Mauritius and Madagascar.

7. EVALUATION (1)

In 1982, Louis Peters, the founder and first Director of the TEE College, submitted a research project to the University of the Witwatersrand as part of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education. The title of the project was The Theological Education by Extension College: An Evaluation. We can fruitfully begin our own evaluation of the work of the TEE College by looking at the findings of its founder in 1982. (3)

Mr. Peters based his evaluation on the answers to a questionnaire sent to 65 urban Diploma and Certificate students, mostly in the PWV area. The aim was to evaluate the effect of the work of the College on its students, particularly in the areas of the role of the material and how it could be improved; the role of the tutor and how it could be improved; and what the tutor and tutorial group as a whole did with the material. The evaluation particularly focussed on TEE as a problem-posing approach to theology, which should help students to think critically about their context.

As a result of his evaluation of the students' responses given in the questionnaires, Mr. Peters analysed the state

of the TEE College in 1982 as follows:

> 'The overriding impression of the students' responses to the questionnaire is that there is a great discrepancy between the students' responses and the stated aims of the TEE College.'
>
> 'In general...the College functions principally as a Correspondence College with the addition of some extension type services.'
>
> 'The study of theology by students of the College is largely seen in the notional/idealist sphere...this is a major criticism.' The stated aims of the College (as given, for example, in the initial statement by the National Committee reproduced in Section 2 of this paper) need to be more clearly communicated.

The following recommendations were made:

Study Materials

The study materials 'need more clearly to reflect the extension character of the College as a whole. In particular care should be taken that courses are designed in such a way that they are not seen as self-sufficient, but as an integral part of an extension setting. Hence the courses should have extension type situations as part of their text.' The general length of courses and lectures needs to be reviewed (though an improvement in the extension setting may help students to study more easily on their own). Attention needs to be paid to the over-use of technical theological language. How can we ensure that contextualization takes place - and is this even possible?

Tutors

More tutors are needed, and more tutor training, especially to do away with the 'knowing tutor' and 'ignorant student' approach. Tutors should not see the study material as the main resource for the tutorial group, but only as one resource among many, to be dealt with critically. Tutors and students should be involved in the preparation of study materials.

The general conclusion of Mr. Peters' evaluation of the TEE College in 1982 was that it was failing to provide theological education by extension. The College was certainly providing theological education, but this was being done primarily through its written material. The other two basic components of a TEE programme (tutor/student seminars and field experience) were not functioning adequately, and even the written material did not sufficiently reflect the essential TEE methodology.

Written material alone cannot enable the student to contextualize his or her studies, to appropriate them as relevant to the society and local community in which he or she lives and works. This is particularly true in the Southern African situation. The Republic of South Africa, for example, has multiple contexts - black, white, urban, rural, westernized, traditional, English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Xhosa, Sotho, Tswana, and so on. Add to these the contexts of other TEE College students living in Lesotho, Swaziland, Namibia or Zimbabwe, and it becomes clear that no written material can hope to relate specifically to each and every context. Most of the work of contextualization, so essential to extension education, has to be done by the students themselves with the help of each other and of the tutor. The written material can only convey the necessity of contextualization, suggest broad ways of doing it and evoke

individual responses from the students. This means that if the student is not aware of the necessity of contextualization and the tutors are not trained to enable the process of contextualization to take place, theology by extension will not happen.

Various factors hampered the initial growth of the TEE College as an extension college:

(a) The comparatively large initial enrolment of students and the rapid growth of student numbers in the first three years resulted in intense pressure to produce new courses quickly. The writing of courses was often hampered by unforseen circumstances, and this meant that there was no time for any pilot schemes to be undertaken, to test in the field whether the courses actually worked as extension material. Nor was there any provision made for systematic evaluation or feedback and revision of the courses. Students were waiting for their lectures, and meeting this demand took all the time and energy of the staff.

(b) The constant lack of adequate finance limited the number of seminars for training tutors which could be held in different parts of the country; the employment of sufficient Regional Co-ordinators to find or train suitable tutors; and the employment of sufficient staff at the Johannesburg office to undertake field research, evaluation, training and regular revision of courses.

(c) As a result of the factors noted in (b), the finding of tutors was often a hit or miss affair, done at a distance and without personal knowledge of the people concerned. Where students lived in remote rural areas, anyone in the vicinity with some theological training would be asked to tutor, just so that someone to help

and encourage was available to the student. The first consideration in looking for a tutor was often theological qualifications; but theology by extension is not a situation of a knowing tutor teaching ignorant students. A TEE tutor is a co-learner with the students, enabling both tutor and students to learn together the relevance of theology to their own context. It was difficult to find such tutors without local knowledge (which the Regional Co-ordinators could supply in the areas which had them); they needed to be trained in TEE methods; and the students needed to be helped to allow the tutors to play this role of enabler — the secular education system predisposed them to expect any tutor to supply information, not enable contextualization.

The tutorial situation was exacerbated by the existence each year of a number of isolated students (sometimes as many as 100), for whom it was impossible to find a tutor because of distance or locality. This state of affairs was in part the result of general advertising of the College's courses, mainly in church newspapers; students responded and registered as individuals, whereas the classic TEE tutorial system is either that a group of potential students ask for the help of a tutor, or the tutor is trained prior to gathering his or her own group of students.

8. EVALUATION (2)

Mr. Peters' recommendations were made in 1982, but practically nothing was done to implement them for the next four years. The reasons for this delay can be found in the history of the College during this period (see Section 3). The Director who replaced Mr. Peters had to learn his job before making changes, and then for over a year the

College was without an overall leader to give direction and initiate change. The financial crisis resulted in lack of staff, no new courses being written, and new courses already written not being published; the translation of Award courses was also stopped. Everyone's energies were directed towards survival, and towards the over-riding priorities of improving the College's financial position and administration.

Now that this phase is over and the College is free of debt and on a far sounder financial footing and has an accepted and valued place in the life of the Church in Southern Africa, it is possible once again to take stock of what has been achieved in the first 10 years of the College's existence and what still remains to be done to provide theological education by extension in Southern Africa.

I have taken as the basis for this evaluation the three essential components of a TEE programme (written material, tutor/students seminars and field experience).

1. Written material

The course material produced by the TEE College seems to be successful in imparting theological knowledge, and is sufficiently self-instructional to enable most students to study it on their own. Enough courses are published (66 in all) for students to complete the Diploma, Certificate or Award, although there is very little choice of courses at Award level and it is not possible to complete the Award in African language translations.

As theological texts, most of the courses are adequate, some are very good and a few are pretty

poor. The Diploma level courses arouse considerable interest among other existing or potential TEE programmes, most of which do not provide material at this academic level. The distinctive education levels of the three study programmes tend to get blurred, and many of the courses are too difficult in vocabulary and syntax for the educational abilities of their target audience. This is particularly true of the Award level and is probably the major contributing factor to the low enrolment figures and high drop-out rate at this level. The Diploma courses, too, highlight the inadequacies of secular education in Southern Africa and in writing new courses and revising existing courses, far more cognizance needs to be taken of the students' lack of skills in critical assessment, selective reading and note-taking, the preparation of essays, and even in the basic tools of geography and history. Trying to learn church history when you know nothing of European history and cannot read a map can be a frustrating experience! Awareness of these kinds of problems is part of the Southern African context of the courses. The role of the course material in the contextualization process will be looked at under (c) Field Experience.

The writers of the existing courses were almost all experts in their particular fields of theology. However, after the first two years, very little training of course writers was undertaken. As a result, some of the more recent Diploma courses have tended to become merely textbooks with a few exercises added, which does not constitute self-instructional material. Many of the older courses are in need of revision and updating; because very little evaluation of the course material has been done, the College has been working in the dark both as to how the courses work in practice, and which new courses should be written.

The College recognizes that the Study Aids are merely a drop in an ocean of educational deprivation. They are best used in conjunction with a seminar meeting; and there is need for far more help in this area of study skills.

All except one of the existing short courses are selling steadily. This is a field where considerable expansion is possible in response to the expressed needs of parishes. Vernacular bible study courses based on the Award courses and more practical courses on such topics as visiting the sick, evangelism and Christian family life could prove popular.

2. Seminar meetings.

The finding and training of tutors is still a major problem for the College. As long as most students enrol as individuals rather than in groups, the difficulty of finding tutors in rural areas will remain, and even where several students enrol in the same area, they may all be studying different courses at different levels. These problems are less acute in urban centres such as Johannesburg and Cape Town, where more tutors are available and several students are likely to be studying the same course. Building up a pool of available tutors, training them and encouraging them to form a group of students is one possible solution; encouraging the formation of parish study groups is another possibility. The implementation of some definite long-term strategy of tutor recruitment and training is essential.

Not all the students of TEE College are convinced of the value of seminar meetings. Some feel the pressure of actually getting through the written course material, and regard seminars as unnecessary distractions. Others

are experienced students and use the material simply as textbooks. Both these attitudes stem in part from the College's failure to communicate the importance and value of the extension approach to doing theology.

3. Field experience

As far as it is possible to judge without systematic feedback, the opportunities for theological study already provided by the TEE College do enable contextualization to take place. Attitudes are changed; closed or lazy minds are opened up to new ideas, or are challenged by their unwillingness to be so; the relevance of biblical studies and doctrine to the life situation, problems and challenges of 20th century Southern Africa are recognized. But much more needs to be done, through the written material, through the training of tutors, and through the whole approach of the College to its theological task.

Given the limitations imposed by a multi-contextual context, I have already suggested that it is difficult to make much of the content of the courses more specifically contextual than it is already. However, the way in which the courses are written can do much to encourage contextualization to take place. The students have considerable life-experience and Christian background to bring to their studies, and a more inductive type of material would encourage them to participate in the process of doing theology and to realize that they have a contribution to make. In a context where so many of the College's students are treated as second-class human beings, the realization that they have a valuable contribution to make in doing theology can also be a factor in the maintenance or restoration of human dignity.

9. THE RESPONSE OF THE TEE COLLEGE TO THIS EVALUATION

The TEE College is already responding to the needs and weaknesses discerned in these two evaluations. What is already being done in these three basic areas can be summarized as follows:

(a) Written material

A comprehensive programme of evaluation and revision of the existing courses has been initiated. Regular meetings of a panel of theologians, educationists with experience of distance/extension methods, and editorial staff evaluate the material and recommend changes, and the editorial staff are being trained to take a more active role in monitoring the course writing and revision. Some exciting ideas for more inductive material have already emerged from these meetings. New course writers will initially work closely with the College editorial staff to ensure that new or revised courses incorporate the required extension approach to theology. It is intended that all new courses should be planned sufficiently far ahead to allow for testing on a pilot group before publication.

A new staff member is being sought to take overall responsibility for the Award programme. The Award level has hitherto been rather neglected; the courses need to be researched in the field, evaluated and revised; new courses need to be written in response to felt needs; the possibilities of putting the material on tape need to be explored; churches and parishes need to be informed of the possibilities of Award level study.

New Diploma courses in Christian Spirituality, Industrial Mission, Church Administration and Hellenistic

Greek are being developed to meet the expressed needs of students. In addition, a course on reading and writing study skills is being prepared in conjunction with the Association of Southern African Theological Institutions (ASATI).

The Short Courses are also being developed, moving away from merely adapting existing longer courses towards creating original material through workshops.

(b) Seminar meetings

The College is aware of the need for a long-term strategy in this area. A beginning has been made by the encouragement of parish group registration, and some of the more practical new Diploma courses will only be available to students who can be assured of a tutor and a regular group seminar meeting. But there is much still to be done in this field.

(c) Field experience

Much of the improvement in communicating to students and tutors the vital necessity of contextualization in doing theology by extension will depend on the revised course material and the recruitment and training of tutors. But there is also a need to know more about the contexts within which the students live and work and to make clear to the students the importance of their role in the revision of courses and the development of new courses to meet their needs. Much ongoing research remains to be done here.

Additional areas of response to the topics specified in the evaluations are those of administration and finance. The administration of the College is at present in the throes of computerization, which will ultimately make the work more

streamlined and effective. Though more stable, there is still room for improvement in the financial situation; there are at present no surplus funds for additional staff or new development projects without specific outside funding over and above the regular grants from donor agencies. However, student fees and church grants from within Southern Africa now form more than 50% of the annual budget, a great improvement on earlier years.

As I have noted above, the various areas of the functioning of the TEE College are closely intermeshed; this can cause wider difficulties if there is a failure in one department, but it also helps to build up a close-knit and deeply committed organization. The first 10 years of the College's life have been a time of experiment, discovery, mistakes and successes; the next 10 years promise to be even more exciting.

REFERENCES

(1) Dr. Milton Baker of the Evangelical Foreign Missions Association, quoted in F. Holland Teaching Through TEE; Evangel Publishing House, Nairobi, 1975; p.9.

(2) L. A. M. Peters: The Theological Education by Extension College: An Evaluation. M.Ed. Research Project, University of the Witwatersrand, 1982.

(3) L. A. M. Peters, op. cit. The analysis and recommendations given on pages 16 - 20 of this paper are based directly on Mr. Peters' research project, a copy of which may be found in the reference library of the University of the Witwatersrand.

APPENDIX 1

STUDENT REGISTRATIONS

Registration takes place twice a year, in January and June. Registration for Diploma and full year Certificate courses takes place only in January; students can register for half year Certificate and Award courses in both January and June. In the table below, figures followed by (1) are for registrations in the first half of the year; figures followed by (2) are the totals for the complete academic year, including June registrations. An analysis of student registrations is normally made in February in preparation for the annual meeting of the TEE College Council. A further analysis of total registrations for the year is not always undertaken; there is therefore some inconsistancy in the figures, but I hope that the overall pattern of registrations is clear.

YEAR	AWARD	CERTIFICATE	DIPLOMA	TOTAL
1977	39	91	179	309 (1) 372 (2)
1978	173	277	269	719 (1) 892 (2)
1979	188	437	434	1059 (1) 1211 (2)
1980	474	466	245	1185 (2)
1981	428	391	319	1138 (1)
1982	367	322	275	964 (2)
1983	129	282	227	638 (2)
1984	135	169	217	521 (1) 700 (2)
1985	139	209	230	578 (1)
1986	125	270	308	703 (2)

APPENDIX 2

COURSES PUBLISHED BY THE TEE COLLEGE IN 1987

AWARD LEVEL

101 Introduction to the Bible (quarter year course)

A101 Afrikaans translation
P101 Northern Sotho translation
S101 Southern Sotho translation
T101 Tswana translation
X101 Xhosa translation
Z101 Zulu translation

102 God and His People (half year course) Old Testament introduction.

A102 Afrikaans translation
S102 Southern Sotho translation
X102 Xhosa translation

112 Amos (quarter)

A112 Afrikaans translation
T112 Tswana translation
X112 Xhosa translation
Z112 Zulu translation

121 Jesus Christ and His People (half) Gospel introduction.

A121 Afrikaans translation
P121 Northern Sotho translation
T121 Tswana translation
X121 Xhosa translation
Z121 Zulu translation

122 The Gospel of Mark (quarter)

A122 Afrikaans translation

141 Basic Christian Doctrines (half) The Apostles' Creed.

A141 Afrikaans translation

153 South African Church History (half)

A153 Afrikaans translation

173 Prayer and Worship in the Bible (quarter)

A173 Afrikaans translation

continued .....

Award level - continued.

176 Preaching (quarter)

A176 Afrikaans translation
S176 Southern Sotho translation
X176 Xhosa translation

The following courses are available in AFRIKAANS ONLY:

A131 Paulus se Boodskap (quarter)

A171 Pastorale Studies (half)

CERTIFICATE LEVEL

201 Introduction to the Bible (half year course)

212 Amos (half)

221 Introduction to the Gospels - Jesus of Nazareth (half)

222-3 Parables, Mark's Gospel and Preaching (full year)

241-2 General Survey of Christian Doctrine (full year)

251 The Early Church (half) Church History AD 29-500

253 South African Church History (half)

266 Church and Christian Social Involvement (half)

271 Pastoral Studies 1 (half) Church Membership and Ministry

276 Spirituality (half)

CERTIFICATE COURSES WITH TEXTBOOK (TEF STUDY GUIDE) AND STUDY PLAN ONLY:

213 Genesis (half)
214 Exodus (half)
215 Psalms (half)
232 1 Corinthians (half)
234 Romans (half)
235 Philippians (half)
281 Guide to Religions (half)

DIPLOMA LEVEL

302 Old Testament I - Introduction.

303 Old Testament II - Prophecy, Politics and Religion.

321 New Testament I - Introduction.

322 New Testament II - The Gospels.

331 New Testament III - Selected books of the New Testament.

342 Doctrine I

343 Doctrine II

351 Church History I - To AD 800

352 Church History II - Medieval and Reformation

353 Church History III - Modern and Southern African.

361 Fundamental Ethics and Special Ethical Problems.

375 The Healing and Counselling Ministry.

377 Christian Education.

381 Missiology.

DIPLOMA COURSE WITHOUT PRINTED LECTURES:

373 Worship

3201

AURAL AND ORAL

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The considerations which follow are the result of years of teaching experience in the field of foreign languages. By "foreign languages", one usually understands "second languages", yet in our context the languages we offer are third languages, and, to some students, even fourth languages - a Hindu taking French in this country slides from Hindi into English, then wrestles with Afrikaans and finally battles in French. In sharp contrast with third and fourth language students are native speakers, many of them Italian and Portuguese. This results in very heterogeneuous classes, a fact worsened further by considerable age differences. Three distinct student groups (namely, third language students, fourth language students and native speakers) have to be accomodated within one course, without devoting undue attention to the first two groups and without boring the third group. Generally, native speakers cause fewer problems than one could expect; they can be kept sufficiently busy with purely academic assignments. For the two first groups, however, the Department has to use a considerable array of strategies to assist students in their transcultural effort. There is of course already a transcultural gap between Hindi and English, but the second language culture is physically present - not 10000 km away, as is the case with French culture.

Many foreign language departments in South Africa have accepted that they have to satisfy two basic requirements: (a) to study the language concerned as an object of scientific investigation, as a corpus of linguistic and literary facts to be observed and analyzed (in short, to enlarge the student's scientific insight); and (b) to improve students' practical knowledge of the language, to improve their language performance and to prepare them for communication. Our work

is subservient to two great B's: the department's range of duties extends from Berlitz to Barthes. This double-faced task is of course immensely complicated when it comes to Distance Tuition.

Without attempting to enter into details concerning the neuro-physiological, psychological and linguistic processes which underlie language acquisition, we can say that language acquisition means the ability to produce discourse "without thinking" of the mental operations which precede the actual uttering of a sentence. Whereas mother tongue acquisition takes place during childhood, the apprentissage of a second language usually takes place when the mother tongue is already stabilized, in the teens or even in adult like. Language acquisition implies the existence of a controlling instance, one correcting errors and formulating rules (COSTE, 1984 : 23). In the case of the mother tongue, the controlling instance is the mother, the family, the child's immediate surroundings. Second language apprentissage usually takes place in a class-room situation and has as controlling instance an instructor, a teacher. Mother tongue acquisition and second language apprentissage differ not only in their controlling instance and in their respective acquiring or learning surroundings, but in many other respects, as BOUTON (1969 : 569) brilliantly shows (Annexe, Table 1).

On the neuro-physiological level, the child benefits from automatisms gained already during the pre-linguistic phases and gets used to expressing himself voluntarily, whereas the adult learner must start from voluntary speaking acts to reach the automatic speaking act. While, psychologically, the child is aided by deep motivations such as the need to influence its surrounding, the desire to assert himself and the need to integrate himself into the surrounding group (all basic vital impulsions), the motivations of the adult learner are more superficial - including as they do curiosity, sentimentality, vanity and material ambition. On the intellectual

level, the child proceeds directly from his life experiences to language. This means that every experience leads to verbal action. These actions acquire with each experience a higher degree of availability, and become each time increasingly independent of the initial experience. The adult learner, however, starts with a pre-existent knowledge of language as a system, the mother tongue system, and fashions the apprentissage of the second language according to patterns of the pre-existent language. The verbal actions in the second language acquire meaning through the filter of the mother tongue: meaning is established by linguistic proximity or by association and analogy. The learner's mother tongue is a sort of substrate which influences the verbal choices and interferes generally with second language performance. Only after a long period of language practice can the learner use the second language to express personal experiences. The ideal grammar for second languages should in fact be strictly based on the differences between the respective mother tongues and second languages, an ideal which of course is rarely attained.

On the linguistic level, the child through actual speech, gradually becomes aware of language as system, whilst the learner starts with a knowledge of the second language system (gained by means of grammar rules) and then only becomes able to formulate actual speech. Since the ultimate goal of second language learning is the expression of personal experience, the learner's whole personality is involved in the learning process to a much greater extent than it is the case in mathematics or history (BOUTON, 1969 : 139).

Acquiring language means acquiring four basic skills; the two "natural skills", listening and speaking, and two "literate skills", reading and writing. Only the two natural skills interest us here. Listening is the perception of a chain of acoustic signifiers. Speaking is the imitation, by means of the learner's own articulatory apparatus, of the language constituents perceived and systematized through

aural perception. The term oral applies to the perceivable acoustic signals either received or transmitted, and the term aural applies to the internal act of comprehending a chain of oral signals. The auditory effort of comprehending a chain of oral signifiers in second language is considerable. At first, the listener cannot perceive the limits of the various meaningful items (BOUTON, 1969 : 126); he is often conscious of making errors and therefore risks developing a sort of trauma, which can create severe inhibitions. Fortunately, the perception of foreign items is supported by what BOUTON (1969 : 178) calls "crutches" - namely, items or structures associated with similar items of the mother tongue. These include etymologically related terms such as English road and French route, English street and Italian strada; and grammatical cognates such as English for me and German für mich. The higher the density of those crutches, the lower the so-called "perception threshold" (BOUTON, 1969 : 178). For second languages without such related or cognate terms and without cultural analogies, the threshold is of course very much higher.

Even in languages with a low perception threshold, the process of aural perception remains a complex one; the simple "listening" is combined with an act of conceptualizing the elements perceived and by the ensuing act of restitution (BOUTON, 1969 : 190 ss.), i.e. by the identification of the constituents which form the chain of oral signals. The aural perception, conceptualization and restitution should eventually develop the listener's aptitude to abstract from the aurally perceived material the principle of regularity on the one hand, and of sentence melody, which distinguishes (in spoken language) a statement from a question or a statement from an order, on the other. The obtained power of abstraction allows the learner to recognize recurrent word combinations, noun phrases or adverbial phrases; in other words, to recognize sentence-forming combinations. The following stage in aural perception is the generalization of these combinations into

patterns, and the last stage consists in systematizing the patterns abstracted from the acoustic material.

In mother tongue surroundings, language acquisition is of course strongly aided by non-verbal factors, such as gestures, facial expression, pauses and even laughter (FOERSTER, 1984). Second language learning in a class-room atmosphere must in general do without these non-verbal factors. The demands made by the needs of social interaction cannot easily be mimed or reconstructed. These disadvantages are multiplied in Distance Tuition, where it is well-nigh impossible to simulate convincingly the basic requirements of interaction. Real interaction stimuli must be replaced in one way or another by artificial interaction stimuli. Put another way, it is as if a learner driver were to sit behind the wheel of a motorcar and receive instructions via telephone on how to start the engine, handle the gear lever and turn onto the road. Distance Tuition possesses however one great advantage: since, generally, the learner is alone in his study, the feeling of looking ridiculous in front of classmates is eliminated and with it a good number of dangerous inhibitions. It is well known that a learner driver starts making real progress when he is able to practice alone, and without the instructor at his side.

The main problem in university courses (particularly in university distance tuition) is to know which language manifestations are to be submitted to the learner. In the past, manifestations were strictly limited to literary works, to products of a highly specialized discourse, marked by special vocabulary, by a high density of imagery, and by syntactic peculiarities. Many literary texts of old - the works of Shakespeare are a good example - have a halo of institutionalized admiration, and are often obscured by literary criticism. Yet, statistically, they represent only a small fraction of the possible verbal manifestations in the language concerned. If a learner has to become performant in communicating,

he has to be exposed to language really used in communication. Considerable differences, for example, separate written French from spoken French, and the latter has become more and more the centre of linguistic interest, since it contains what has been termed the "specific traits of orality" (FRANÇOIS, 1977 : 32-36). Spoken language has its own production patterns of oral utterances (VAYONE et al., 1981 : 9 ss.); it is definitely not a "draft" of written language, and yet it lives with the latter in a complex relationship. We can but think of the striking results obtained by the quotation of written formulas in spoken language, as an English speaker does, when he replaces the first person pronoun with the written formula Yours truly. The jocular quoting of written formulas is frequent in Romance Languages, a fact which spoken material submitted to learners of these languages cannot ignore.

Spoken language is action, and implies interaction between people. Communication is the most tangible objective of spoken language, which achieves that goal both with verbal and non-verbal elements. Furthermore, spoken language manifests desire, fear, and the need to situate the speaker's own existence in front of the conversation partners and the world. According to GIRARDET (1980 : 11), spoken language can be classified in three categories: (a) the spontaneously spoken texts, which have the highest degree of orality. These texts cannot be lifted out of the situation where they were spoken, because of the constant references to the direct surroundings (partners, place, time); in linguistic terms, because of the numerous shifters - like I, you, here, tomorrow - which receive their meaning only through the communication situation, (b) the prepared spoken texts, notes for a public address, for instance, (c) the fictive spoken texts, film scripts or drama texts, put together according to the principles which govern spoken communication. Distance Tuition in second languages is therefore required to supply learners with a well-chosen corpus of verbal manifestations of the target language.

Seen as a whole, the material submitted to our students comprises the following three classes of exercises:

1) exercises for systematizing language structures, and for the development of patterns;
2) extracts for aural perception of various specific discourses, with a sub-group developing the passage from the aural to the written;
3) oral performance exercises.

The core of group (1) is formed by the prescribed language textbook. From the available textbooks we select those accompanied by cassettes. These cassettes are duplicated (with copyright granted, of course) and sent to students as part of the tutorial matter. Although they reflect their authors' didactical outlook, they are clearly composed with the objective to improve aural perception and oral performance. The Department's own cassettes are (a) more closely focussed on certain distinctive traits of orality and (b) used as spoken documentation on history, literature and general background. They often constitute the raw material for assignments or even direct examination material. In the two latter cases, cassettes are not accompanied by texts - students are forced to listen repeatedly to the tapes in order to assimilate the material. Thus, the non-existent social interaction stimuli are replaced by a stimulus of another kind, i.e. the desire to do well in the examination.

The Italian beginners course gives a good example of the techniques applied to systematize structures. Twenty-two cassettes accompany the textbook, which in itself is strongly oriented on spoken Italian, contain texts, and spoken by a great number of speakers from different professional and social origin. These commercial cassettes are organized as follows:

a) Normal speed recording of a dialogue for aural perception only;
b) An acoustic signal i.e. a non-verbal code element warns the learner to prepare for repeating;
c) Slow speed recording of the same passage with

pauses for repeating certain text segments;

d) Normal speed recording with pauses for repeating entire sentences.

This pattern forms grosso modo the basis of the structural exercises in all four languages. By interspersing these exercises with actual spoken material not exploited structurally - the listen/repeat method can become tedious - the various cassette series familiarize learners with the coexistence, within the system, of different levels of speech. Certain chapters in the French textbook focus on student language, others on workers' language or administrative and managerial language. In third-year French, a certain portion of cassette work is reserved for dialect texts: the speech of a peasant in Normandy is valid both as part of communication in France and as a cultural phenomenon. Most of the spontaneous spoken texts, transcribed with the necessary "cleaning up" or "toilettage" (VANOYE, 1980 : 31), allow the learner to perceive the changes in speech rhythm and sentence melody which differ according to the personality, geographical origin and professional status of the speakers.

The exercises devoted to the relationship of aural vs. written language are valuable. Adult learners possess a considerable experience in literate skills and should not exclusively be limited to mother tongue acquisition practices. In this group, some literary extracts are to be listened to with the written text in hand, a method easy to justify, since literature is by definition a written language manifestation. As a controlling measure, many cassettes, either commercial or departmental, contain dictations. The text, perceived and written down, is sent in for tutor correction, an exercise very much enjoyed by students. Whilst dictation forces the learner to render the oral text in a one-to-one relationship, the perception of background and literary texts leads to an internalization and stocking of knowledge, which might eventually resurface in a proportion of, let's say, 10:1.

Many literary or cultural texts are followed by spoken multiple choice exercises, which inevitably require repeated listening to both the text document and the series of questions. Obviously, the 48 cassettes containing Cervantes' entire Don Quijote, kept in the record library and sent to students on request, are not meant to be structurally exploited. Intended for "plunging" the learner into the cultural space of the target language are the 110 French cassettes, SONOFRANCE, which contain radio broadcasts made during the past six years on various topics pertaining to France's political and social problems. The cassette on South Africa as seen by France is particularly in demand. In 1986, the Record Library sent several hundreds of those cassettes to students of French. All the items available to students in French either on cassettes or records fill a document of 23 pages. In deciding on which literary work to prescribe, the availability of a spoken version on records is often a decisive criterion of selection because, in listening to the recording, learners perceive both the literary text and the way that text is spoken within the cultural space of the country of origin; theatrical elocution on Neo-Latin stages differs considerably from the cooler and less emphatic Anglo-Saxon elocution. The partaking, by means of recordings, in French theatrical ventures, is a direct preparation for attending a real show in France.

These aural aids make the transcultural effort easier and more attractive. As Gautherot (1984 : 85-86) recommends, language and culture are no longer treated as separate entities: cultural aspects are not lectured about, but taken care of by means of recorded radio interviews, theatrical elocution, ways of emphasizing, etc. Language clichés, which form an important part of usage, are elements worthy of attention, as are certain lexical peculiarities of the target language. It would take a lot of time to teach and to learn the difference between French autobus and car: a short dialogue, properly perceived and internalized, brings home

with little effort that the autobus is a city bus, and the car an overland bus.

Although the department's four languages share the same basic outlook, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish do not have at their disposal the same array of instruments as French - with its more agressive cultural policy. For this reason, we concentrate for a moment on the aural-oral study packet in French (Table II). Table II clearly shows that the beginners' course emphasizes the structural aspect of the language system : structural exercises dominate, whereas oral performance requirements are absent. This situation is gradually reversed : French 300 has no structural exercises, but a maximum of oral performance training leading up to the final oral examination. Dictation exercises figure prominently, with 80% student-corrected by means of the texts given in the language guides. Only 20% are tutor-marked assignments. The French video program Entrée libre (= admission free), a very appropriate name, offers students the opportunity to be admitted to clearly delimitated communication situations. The program is available in the record library; its use and possible exploitation are carefully described in a special Tutorial Letter. One might mention in this context that Spanish offers students a monthly digest of Spanish TV news programs. In French 300 only two oral assignments are prescribed. Although their value is undisputed, the department is unable to include more of them, since the marking time is equal to listening time plus time for individual comments. The class's 25 oral assignments require more than 25 hours marking time, more than three full working days.

Distance Education 2000 : for European languages, the outlook is not bleak, although by then they probably will have lost a lot of ground at high school level, where scholars will have to give their attention more and more to their first true foreign language, i.e. an African language. European foreign languages might by then be taught exclusively at

university. Students enrolling for these languages will all be strongly motivated beginners. University syllabi will have to reserve undergraduate teaching to intensive language coaching and transcultural tuition, and leave the scientific aspects to postgraduates. The aural-oral component will have to be strengthened even further. New technical aids will become accessible; simulcast TV programs will increase in number. The video compact disc will be freely available, and language departments are consequently advised to study the didactic possibilities of this new teaching medium (COMPTE, 1984 : 65). Language departments will by then have developed the communication aspect of their languages. Communication means speaking, but "in the first line it means to be able to listen. The act of listening is to open oneself to society, to one's fellow being. It means to decipher the various registers in the target language" (PEYTARD, 1977 : 16). Distance tuition is well equipped to develop this listening capacity: the vast arsenal of audio material, produced either commercially or within departments, with numerous speakers from all strata of society and all registers, with contrasting discourses, levels of speech, idiolects, dialects, offers a wealth of aural information which normal class-room tuition cannot offer. Distance tuition allows the learner to turn his car radio into a teaching aid. The task of selecting, preparing, dealing with copyright holders, duplicating, stocking and dispatching this multifacetted material requires a considerable effort. But this effort is worthwhile, because a solid aural-oral study package assists the learner in avoiding the traumatic experience of being suddenly compelled to use incomplete and helpless sentences after so many years of mother tongue expressions. As we state in one of our Tutorial Letters:

> If you have difficulties with a cassette, it is strictly forbidden to lose heart. We propose the following:
> 1. Redo the preparatory work.
> 2. Do the cassette once more the following day.
> 3. If the difficulties remain, it is still forbidden to lose heart. Phone us immediately!

Table I : Mother tongue vs. Second Language

	Mother tongue= acquisition	**Second language= "apprentissage"**
Neuro-physiological level	automatic > voluntary	voluntary > automatic
Psychological level	deep motivations	superficial motivations + inhibitions
Intellectual level	experience > language	language > experience
Linguistic level	speech language	language > speech

(according to BOUTON, 1969:569)

AURAL/ORAL STUDY PACKET **FRENCH** UNDERGRADUATE

	Aural Perception			Oral Performance
	System training	From aural to written texts	Aural & visual perception	
Preparatory French	8 cassettes structural exercises	3 dictations	Recommended aural work on sound documents (SONO-FRANCE) Video: "Entrée Libre"	
FRN100	12 cassettes structural exercises + 4 cassettes oral solutions of grammar exercises	9 dictations	Recommended sound documents (SONO-FRANCE) Video: "Entrée Libre"	Question-answer exercises
FRN200	12 cassettes structural exercises (as for FRN100)	9 dictations	Recommended sound documents (SONO-FRANCE) Video: "Entrée Libre"	1 cassette multiple choice text comprehension
FRN300		9 dictations	7 compulsory sound documents (SONO-FRANCE) Video: "Entrée Libre" 1 cassette : idiolects and dialects of France	(a) 2 oral assignments: Answering direct questions on written and acoustic documents. Oral presentation of various topics (b) Oral Examination

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MUSIC EDUCATION THROUGH UNISA - PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

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Background

World affairs are in a state of great turbulence, and South Africa is no exception. The recession and political events of the last few years have had their impact on the music scene at all levels and in all spheres, and it is well that at this moment in time we pause briefly to consider music education through UNISA, its past history of achievement, the present, and the future which is even now cradled in the present.

There is no single South African music. Even a casual glance at the music scene reveals its great diversity, its richness. We need only refer to the heritage of Western music which is the music of those of European descent, the traditional music of the various black peoples, the township jazz (Mbhaqanga), the music of the Indian community, and that of the Cape Malay, to name a few, to realize that this is true.

Oliver Walker, a former controversial music critic of the Rand Daily Mail, writing in October 1957, stated that in South African music "there have been manifest signs in the post-war years that we are approaching a highly interesting stage of adolescence".[1] By 1983 Western music had developed to such a degree that one could acclaim confidently that South African composition was "in good hands and was moving with 'world' music firmly in its sights".[2] As Professor C van Wyk has said:

> "We composers are more aware of what is happening in the world at large and we feel a greater need to be at least on equal terms with the rest of the world. The new gene=

> ration of composers in South Africa today is in the fore= front of international musical development".[3]

South Africans have moved onto an international level, writing music of our age. Should the sphere of the performing artist and the standards attained there too be examined, an encouraging picture emerges as well.[4]

However, this most positive development has received a body blow in the last two years. The recession and the political climate has, hopefully only temporarily, impeded growth.

> "Professional musicians from abroad who have for many years been members of our orchestras are leaving, visi= ting artists are cancelling concert commitments, and musicologists are refusing to come to our universities as visiting lecturers until change has taken place."[5]

This impact is also clearly reflected in the position classical music now holds in the broadcast time of the South African Broadcasting Corpo= ration, although it denies "there has been a decline in the quantity or quality of music broadcast."[6] In reply, Mr Julius Eichbaum of the Transvaal Music Critics Circle said that:

> "...an analysis of one random week - that of November 17-23 (1986) - showed that, discounting jazz and film music, only 36 1/4 hours of classical music had been broadcast.
>
> Much of this consisted of pop classics and items in lighter vein. The schedules also showed more short works were being aired, as well as single movements of longer works - a source of irritation to many listeners.
>
> This is like reading only one chapter of a book or staging one scene of a play, ...If the SABC is trying to popularize music which has been univer= sally popular for centuries, that is absurd.

> Is this an attempt on the part of a 50-year-old corporation to create a superficial pop culture at the expense of our cultural heritage?"[7]

Further evidence of this move is the disbanding of the National Symphony Orchestra of the SABC and that of PACT (The Performing Arts Council of the Transvaal), in order to form one single utility orchestra serving all spheres of musical endeavour.

Inextricably interlinked in all this activity is music education, and particularly that of UNISA, a university which is able to reach out to assist people throughout South Africa and beyond its borders, to people of every race, colour and creed. The majority of its music students are teachers in schools or private practice, people already in a position of influence.

William Poland, in his article "A Theorists Review of a Century of Musicology" states that "... as college-level ists - musicologists and theorists - we share the responsibility not only to train but to educate future ers: composers, performers, teachers, and listeners."[8] He points out further that there are five basic questions to ask about any human enterprise, viz. 1) What do we do?... 2) Why do we do it?... 3) How well do we do it?... 4) How well does what we do relate to why we do it?.. and 5) What difference does it make whether we do it or not?[9] Hopefully the answer to some of these questions will emerge as we reflect on the past, present and future in music education through UNISA.

UNISA: Early music history

Music Examinations

The University of the Cape of Good Hope was established by Act 16 of 1873, which "received royal assent on 26 June and in due course was approved by the mother of parliments".[10] The Amendment Act of 1896 empowed the university to confer "Degrees in music" but these were never instituted. It was at this time that music examinations of a more general kind became "an important feature of the university's work".[11] In 1892 Council had

commissioned the physician and composer J H Meiring Beck, a member of the university's governing body, to approach the recently established Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music in London "in order to see whether it would extend its examining facilities to the colony"[12], and the request was favourable considered. The first music examiner to visit the colony was Franklin Taylor, in 1894.

> "A long association between the university, its successor and the London body followed. It was not without its vicissitudes, but it provided many South African musicians and vocalists with an opportunity to study further."[13]

One reads with interest of the problems encountered by the visiting music examiners, for example, during the Anglo-Boer War, when, in 1901, Eaton Faning was informed that "the examinations will be held (De Wet permitting) at Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, Pietermaritzburg, Durban, and at all the old and at some new Centres in this Colony".[14] In 1914 the examiners were "unavoidably detained when the mailboats were held up; German submarines made travel to Europe dangerous for scholarship holders."[15]

The University of South Africa took over from the University of the Cape of Good Hope after the Easter holiday in 1918 and it retained responsibility for music examinations. The association between the university and the Associated Board was not an easy one. The university tried to satisfy the dictates of the Board and reconcile them with the musical profession and the South African public.

> "When in 1923, Percival R Kirby and Theophil Wendt attempted to assess the work of candidates with a severity unknown before, there was consternation in the musical world. It was the appointment of such local examiners in musical theory which marked the beginning of a split with the Associated Board. The English examiners had been under fire for their inability to cope when they visited Afrikaans-speaking areas;

> the Associated Board, however, would not have examiners chosen on any but musical and professional grounds. There was, too, a certain prejudice in some quarters in favour of the imported article. In the thirties, the university nevertheless began to use South Africans for practical examinations as well as for the theoretical papers. Relations with the Associated Board began to deteriorate and there was, even before the second World War, talk of a complete break with the English body. This at length took place in 1945."[16]

An attempt was made in 1948 by the Associated Board for a renewal of co-operation, one in which examiners were appointed on a fifty-fifty basis, but nothing came of this and from 1950 "in answer to demands from music teachers, the London body began to hold its own examinations in South Africa, in competition with its former associate."[17]

All remained well however for UNISA as is evident from the fact that by 1951 when the Assistant Registrar, Petrus A Taljaard, summed up the duties of his department, "there were nearly 10,000 entries for music examinations - more than twice as many as there were for degree examinations from students of the Division of External Studies and others".[18] This is evidence not only of the popularity and purpose of the UNISA certificate examinations, but also of the healthy commitment in the country of people to music as a whole.

As the university developed towards its present status as a teaching institution music as a degree study was once again considered. In 1952 a Committee of Studies in Music was constituted under the chairmanship of Professor P R Kirby of the University of the Witwatersrand, which eventually brought about the establishment of a teaching Department of Music within the division of the Faculty of Arts in 1958. Its first professor was D J Roode, formerly of the University of the Orange Free State, who held the post until 1966. He was also Director of Music Examinations until 1967. Music examinations was a seperate department from the academic department of music. H Joubert, later to be appointed honorary professor in the Department of Musicology in 1983, succeeded Roode as Director of Music Examinations.

Joubert died tragically in a motor accident in 1986. At the time of his death his department offered examinations for Grades 1 to 8 in practical and theory, and a Licentiate Diploma in any of 8 areas of study, viz, Teachers, Performers, School Music Teaching, Military Bandmastership, Church Organist, Choirmastership, Accompanist, and Theory of Music.

Although UNISA and its predecessor the University of the Cape of Good Hope have been involved with music examinations, it must be stressed that "music examinations and music education are not, and never were intended to be one and the same.... Examinations are supplementary and incidental to music education".[19] Colin Taylor underlines the objects of the examinations system:

(a) to set a high standard in the choice and performance of music;
(b) to assist teachers to teach and maintain that standard;
(c) to help guide a child's first steps;
(d) to provide an occasional stimulus for students, and
(e) to give parents a yard-stick with which to measure a candidate's progress.[20]

To these Joubert adds: "their is ... the bright and positive side of the examination system, where teacher and pupil have their eyes fixed on that future day when he will be independent and will have to fend for himself, musically speaking. In these cases knowledge is accumulated, absorbed and broadened. This is the ultimate aim of the UNISA music examinations".[21] His concluding words of his inaugural address stress the permanence of the examination ideal and his vision of their ultimate value:

> "...music examinations are here to stay, and should be here to stay. Given the correct treatment and the united support of all in South Africa that it truly deserves, this system may yet become the golden stimulus and indispensable cornerstone of an enlightened music public in our country."[22]

Though no teaching is undertaken by the Department of Music Examinations, through the journal of the department, Musicus, which started in 1972, Joubert was able to provide direction, guidance and knowledge which was

of value to the music teacher and student.

The Department of Music

Administering examinations for a Bachelor of Music and postgraduate degrees was not new to UNISA. By 1934 it was already involved with a BMus for its internal students who received their instruction at any one of the univeristy's constituent colleges which catered for this field of study, e.g. Rhodes University College.[23]

UNISA also offered "Music" as a major subject for its external students as early as the 1930's, - if not before! The course of study over a 3 year period was an admixture of music theory, analysis, harmony and counterpoint, and history of music. The 3 year curriculum for 1934 was as follows:

First year

1. Practical aural training, including musical dictation.
2. History of Music (1700 up to date).
3. Studies in phrasing and form, particularly Beethoven sonatas.
4. Harmonisation of melodies and figured bass up to four parts instrumental and vocal... etc.

Second year

1. Studies in the history and growth of a) Symphony or b) Opera.
2. Advanced harmony... etc.
3. Advanced analysis of keyboard works up to Scriabin and Ravel.

Third year

1. Study of selected classical works from score.
2. Advanced harmony.
3. Counterpoint in 3 parts.
4. Elements of Acoustics
5. Form and analysis.
6. Sight playing from four part score.

A candidate who offered Music as a BA subject had to take a modern language or Fine Art, and another BA subject from prescribed groups. This course obviously met the needs of those students who approached music as an interest study and not necessarily as a career option.

As mentioned, Roode assumed the headship of the new Department of Music in 1958, and structured the Bachelor of Music degree curriculum on that offered by the university to its internal students in 1950.[24] Study was spread over four years and consisted of three seperate components, viz. academic music courses, practical music studies, and three Arts subjects. The 1958 curriculum was:

First year

History of Music I
General Music Knowledge I
Harmony and Counterpoint I
First Practical Performance I
Second Practical Performance I
Musical Form I
Afrikaans-Nederlands I or Practical Afrikaans or English I or Practical English
Any other first year BA course approved by Senate

Second year

History of Music II
General Music Knowledge II
Harmony and Counterpoint II
Musical Form II
First Practical Performance II
Second Practical Performance II
Teaching Method I
Any other first year BA course not yet taken and approved by Senate

Third year

History of Music III
Harmony and Counterpoint III
First Practical Performance III
Second Practical Performance III
Orchestration I
Teaching Method II

Fourth year

Orchestration II
Playing from Score
First Practical Performance IV
Second Practical Performance IV
Composition Exercise

In 1960 Harmony and Counterpoint were divided into two separate courses.

Except with special permission of the Senate, no candidate was admitted to the degree course unless he had passed, in a previous year, in the Advanced Grade (VII) of the Examinations of the University of South Africa, or other approved institution, the practical subject chosen by him as his principal study, or had passed in Music for the Senior Certificate or Matriculation Examination, or had satisfied the Head of the Department of Music that he had reached a standard in practical music equivalent to the above. If the candidate chose Singing, a String or Wind instrument as his principal study, he had to take Piano as subsidary study in all the years of study for the degree.

The Counterpoint study concentrated mainly on that of the six species, while Harmony was directed towards that of 'functional harmony'. The second and third courses in harmony included a second paper in keyboard harmony. Of note in the curriculum are the two courses in Teaching Method, and a 'Composition Exercise' which could be handed in at any time but not before the beginning of the final year. This 'Composition' requirement was a carry through of that demanded of the student for the BMus degree for internal students already operational in 1934.[25]

It is obvious that the degree aimed at a general music education which would prepare the student for entry to a variety of fields, such as composer, teacher, performer, orchestrator, etc.

Concurrent with the degree a Teachers Diploma in Music was instituted. This was a three year course in which the subjects were the same as for the degree, except that the Arts subjects were dispenced with from the first and second years and History of Music III from the third year. Candidates for the Diploma had to be in possession of a Matriculation or Matriculation Exemption Certificate, and had fulfilled the same practical requirements as for the degree. The candidate could proceed to the BMus studies provided that the three Arts courses were passed before enrolling for the fourth year.

In addition to the BMus degree and Diploma, the music department offered the degrees of Master and Doctor of Music.[26] The Master's degree could be either in music research, for which a dissertation was required, or composition, in which case a set of original compositions were submitted for examination. The genres were prescribed by the Senate. Every candidate for the DMus degree had to present for the approval of Senate a thesis with or without further examination. The thesis may be:

a) a special treatise on a subject previously approved by the University, or
b) a work of historical or theoretical or analytical research in Music.

The Department of Musicology

Bernard S van der Linde was appointed professor and head of the department in succession to Roode in 1966. He immediately set about reorganizing the structure of the Bachelor of Music degree with regard to the aim and purpose of the courses, and in 1968 a new curriculum and new syllabuses were adopted. In 1970 the designation Musicology replaced that of Music for the name of the department as well as in the title of the degrees of BMus., MMus., and DMus. An Honours degree was introduced in 1973. This was the beginning of a period of considerable growth for the department,

both in student numbers which touched 200 by 1978, and in full-time members of staff - 15 in 1980.

Fundamental to van der Linde's concept of a musicology degree was the removal of the Arts subjects and 'practical' courses, and the implementation of a 'style' orientated study according to historical periods. This applied equally to Harmony and Counterpoint, History of Music, and Musical Form. The question may well be asked as to how a degree in 'musicology' differs from one in 'music'. Van der Linde answers it as follows:

> "At UNISA the difference lies essentially in approach rather than in content".[27]

The Harmony and Counterpoint syllabuses, which clearly reflect this styllistic approach are:

HCT100-U (Course I) (Three papers)

**Paper 1: Harmony:* Baroque

The chorale style of the Baroque: The resources of the major and minor scales, including diatonic and chromatic triads and quartets, cadences, modulation to related keys and non-chord notes

**Paper 2: Counterpoint:* Baroque

Two-part counterpoint in Baroque style displaying imitation and invertible counterpoint

***Paper 3: Keyboard harmony and analysis:* Baroque

Keyboard harmony: The harmonic resources of the style mentioned above
Analysis: Analysis of the harmonic and contrapuntal resources mentioned above

HCT200-X (Course II) (Three papers)

**Paper 1 (HCT201-Y): Harmony:* Classical period

The vocal and instrumental style of the Early and High Classical period

**Paper 2 (HCT202-3): Counterpoint:* Classical period

Two-part counterpoint in Classical style displaying imitation and inversion at the octave or double octave. In addition 3-part fugato in Classical style

***Paper 3 (HCT203-4): Keyboard harmony and analysis:* Classical period

Keyboard harmony: The harmonic resources of the style mentioned above
Analysis: A chamber or symphonic work of the Early or High Classical period

HCT300-4 (Course III) (Three papers)

**Paper 1 (HCT301-5): Harmony:* Romantic period

The vocal and instrumental style of the Early and High Romantic periods

**Paper 2 (HCT302-6): Counterpoint:* Romantic period

Three-part fugal exposition; two-part canon with an added part; two- and three-part contrapuntal techniques such as imitation, inversion, augmentation, diminution, stretto and pedal point. All of the above in Romantic style

***Paper 3 (HCT303-8): Keyboard harmony and analysis:* Romantic period

Keyboard harmony: The harmonic resources of the style mentioned above
Analysis: A chamber or symphonic work of the Early or High Romantic periods

HCT400-8 (Course IV) (Three papers)

Paper 1 (HCT401-9): Harmony:* **Expanded tonality

The harmonic resources of Late Romanticism, Impressionism, Neoclassicism and Expressionism

Paper 2 (HCT402-A): Counterpoint:* **Expanded tonality

Knowledge and analysis of the contrapuntal resources of Late Romanticism, Neoclassicism, Impressionism and Expressionism

***Paper 3 (HCT403-B): Keyboard harmony and analysis:* **Expanded tonality**

Keyboard harmony: **The harmonic resources of the styles mentioned above**

Analysis: **A reduction for piano of a score in any of the styles mentioned above**

The degree was compacted into a tightly knit 12 course curriculum, i.e. two major four year courses of History of Music, and Harmony and Counterpoint, two courses of Musical Form, and one each of Music Bibliography, and Introduction to Musicology. The course in Music Bibliography is the first introduced in any South African BMus curriculum, and has now been implemented at a few other universities in this country. It sets out to introduce the student to the sources of his material for study, - books, records, scores - the library itself, and how to evaluate entries in dictionaries and lexicons, etc.

Practical music is not ignored, but does form part of the tuition offered by the department. Every student must qualify with a licentiate diploma in any recognised instrument through UNISA's Department of Music Examinations (UTLM/UPLM), the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music (LRSM), Trinity College of Music (LTCL), or any recognised institution approved by the Senate, before the degree is conferred upon him.

Admission as a candidate for the BMus degree is set out fully in the current 1987 calendar as follows:

A46 Admission

(1) To be registered as a candidate for the BMus degree, a student must have satisfied the provisions of Rule A3.

N.B. **•** ***A certified copy of the relevant document required by Rule A3 must accompany the student's FIRST application for registration.***

• ***A student who wishes to register for Harmony and Counterpoint I must also submit evidence of having passed either Grade V in a keyboard instrument for the Unisa Music Certificate Examinations (or an equivalent examination) or Music at Matriculation level. See (3) below.***

• ***A sound knowledge of the rudiments of music, equivalent to that required for Unisa Grade III Theory (or an equivalent examination), is expected when a student registers for any of the first-year BMus courses.***

(2) For the purposes of the Licentiate Requirement (see Rule A50 below) it is desirable that, before enrolling for the degree, a student shall have reached a standard in practical music equivalent to that of Grade VII of the Unisa Music Certificate Examinations, or that required for Music at the Matriculation or an equivalent examination.

(3) Analytical sight-reading ability is a requirement of the effective study of Harmony and Counterpoint. The development of this ability forms part of the tuition for the oral paper (Keyboard Harmony and Analysis), and is tested in this paper. For this reason a student must have free access to a keyboard instrument throughout the year.

Students who are admitted to the course Harmony and Counterpoint I by virtue of having passed Music at Matriculation level, but whose practical examination therein was *not* in a keyboard instrument, are expected to have attained a standard equivalent to Grade V of the Unisa Music Certificate Examinations in the latter in order to cope with the Keyboard Harmony paper of this course (Harmony and Counterpoint II).

Charles B Fowler, in his article 'Academic Excellence in Teaching the Arts' refers to the three abilities which must be 'learning outcomes' from studying the arts. They are: 1) knowledge of how to produce and perform; 2) knowledge of how to analyse, interpret, and evaluate; and 3) knowledge of art works of other periods and cultures.[30] These 'outcomes' are inherent in the study programme of UNISA's BMus curriculum.

Van der Linde realized that despite the comprehensive nature of the BMus degree, it was expedient to prepare the student still further before embarking on study at Masters level in research. The Honours year, usually spread over two years, bridges this gap. A most attractive curriculum developed over a period of a decade, now offers the candidate the option of choosing five papers from a total of ten offered. Music Bibliography is compulsory for all students, while those admitted to study who qualified with the BMus from another university must also register for the paper in Harmony and Counterpoint.

The papers offered are:

Paper 1: Music Bibliography (MUBIBH-8)

Paper 2: The harmonic resources of the late Romantic Period (HARMPO-W)

Paper 3: Form and style of Western music before 1600 (MFW000-Q)

Paper 4: Form and style of Western music in the Baroque era (MFAP00-K)

Paper 5: Form and style of Western music in the twentieth century (TWENTC-X)

Paper 6: History of Western music before 1600 (HMW000-V)

Paper 7: Performance practice according to historical principles (PERFPR-A)

Paper 8: An introduction to Ethnomusicology (ETHNOM-R)

Paper 9: Elements of Western music notation before 1600 and after 1920 (ELEWES-F)

Paper 10: An article of ideally 4 000-6 000 words typed in double spacing on a musicological topic chosen by the student and approved by the Head of the Department. This article must be submitted before or concurrently with the final examination, i.e. the last written paper(s). At least 50% must be obtained for the article which carries the same weight as an examination paper (MUSART-9).

Orientation remains that of stylistic study.

The present Honours structure is such that in the future further options could be added according to the need and demand from society. Papers in Musical Journalism, South African Music History, The Psychology of Music, A Stylistic Study of Popular Music, The Philosophies of Music, etc. are a few that come to mind and would broaden a student's horizon.

The Masters and Doctorate degrees are research degrees.

As Prof Georg Marais, Dean of the Faculty of Commerce at UNISA in 1978, stated: "You don't just 'teach' business leadership. You 'manage' a 'self-tuition' programme".[32] This is exactly what the department of musicology is doing.

By 1983, I personally was prepared to go on record as saying:

> "UNISA's Department of Musicology... is openly acknowledged as being in the vanguard of music research and education in its broadest sense. To graduate as a Bachelor of Musicology (S.A.), is an honour and an achievement..."[33]

Van der Linde pertinently observes that

> "Unisa's Department of Musicology must surely be given credit for finding, as a world pioneer, a viable solution to the challenge of teletuition in music... If a person pages through The South African Music Teacher, it will be noticed how many members already have gained their degree in musicology through UNISA..."[34]

The success is undoubtedly the result of the four S's in operation. These are:

1) Structure - of the degree, in which the courses have relationship, one with another, and build towards a fourth year of indepth study;

2) Study Package - of well written, comprehensive study guides, tutorial letters and recorded cassettes;

3) Service - by the lecturers to the students where every effort is made to return assignments promptly and to personalize the teaching, despite distance. Discussion classes are held twice a year in Pretoria, Durban and Cape Town with students;

4) Standards - where second-rate work is not tolerated, and the best from every student is encouraged and insisted upon.

It is the tutorial letters, sent regularly throughout the year of study, which help the lecturer keep in touch with his student. Through the written word ideas, concepts, and comments are communicated. Clarity is of utmost importance; language must be easily understood, and the student must know what the message of the letter is and where it can be found. The letters guide the students' thoughts, instruct him, and provide encouragement to perservere and attain his full potential. The following example reveals a lecturer's personal touch and clear approach in presenting her ideas. See pages 15a, 15b, 15c, 15d.

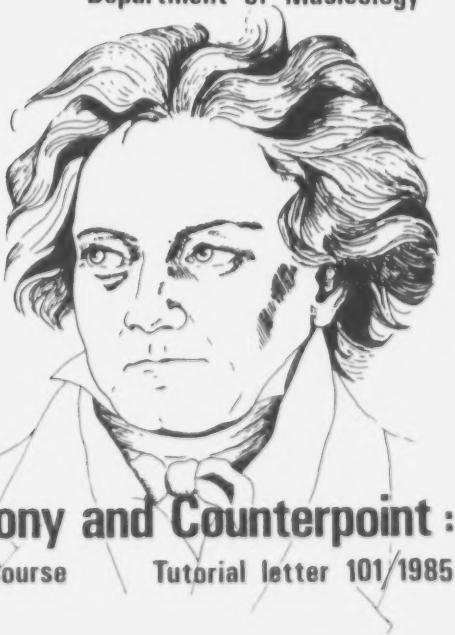
A further means of contact and communication with the student is through the department's quality annual house journal Ars Nova. It was first launched in 1969 and now presents articles on relevant teaching topics, book reviews, departmental news, etc.

Assessment by Students

The department is well aware that it is the student who is at the focal point of every endeavour in the teaching process. If I may borrow from a current TV commercial:

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Department of Musicology



Harmony and Counterpoint :

Special Course **Tutorial letter 101/1985**

88

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1. INTRODUCTION

Welcome to the special course in Harmony and Counterpoint!

You are now a registered student at the University of South Africa and have received the tutorial matter for this course.

WHAT IS THE NEXT STEP?

> First read p. (iii) in your Study guide attentively and then proceed to follow the suggested procedure.

Tutorial letter 101 plays a significant role in the planning of your studies, since it contains various aspects concerned with the contents of the course, the tutorial matter and other general information which is of importance to students. The following pertinent questions, amongst others, are answered:

WHO? WHAT? HOW? WHY? WHERE? WHEN?

> N.B. After you have studied this tutorial letter very carefully, you should keep it for future reference. The same applies to all subsequent tutorial letters.

In the course of your study you will come across "command words" such as the following:

READ, STUDY, PRACTISE, etc.

You must consciously take note of these words since they contribute to the degree of success that you will achieve in your studies. Keep in mind that at UNISA the written word is the principal medium of communication between students and lecturers, as well as between students and the university in general. Therefore, it is essential that you should develop the ability to read extremely carefully and attentively.

A thorough knowledge of the rudiments of music is a prerequisite for admission to this course. However, a knowledge of harmony is not expected. The course is planned in such a way that at the successful completion thereof you will be well prepared to continue with the Harmony and Counterpoint 1 course. It, therefore, covers a tremendous amount of ground. I must stress from the outset that you can only succeed in your studies if you apply yourself regularly. Draw up a work timetable allowing at least one hour per day for this course.

The following are some points which should be taken into account when planning your work schedule:

- The closing dates for assignments should be kept in mind.
- Provision should be made for the study of both sections of this course (see Study guide, p. (xii), THE STRUCTURE OF THE COURSE). Note that the Keyboard harmony and analysis course must be completed by the end of August, as the examination is scheduled for the end of September.
- If you intend making use of the recommended books (see paragraphs 3.1.4 and 3.2.4) you should order these books from the library well in advance – at least six weeks before the closing date for a specific assignment.
- Check the requirements for admission to the examination (see paragraph 2.3).

2. THE EXAMINATION

2.1 PAPER 1: HARMONY AND COUNTERPOINT

This paper takes the form of an assignment, and will be sent to you during the examination period in October. You are required to complete this paper at home within three weeks. You may consult any of the prescribed or recommended books, but the work must be done on your own without any outside assistance. When submitting the completed paper to the university, it must be accompanied by an affidavit certifying that it is your own work.

Precise instructions regarding this paper will be send to you later in the year.

2.2 PAPER 2: KEYBOARD HARMONY AND ANALYSIS

This is a practical examination which is usually conducted in six main centres in South Africa, depending on the number and distribution of students. This examination takes place before the written examination in October - usually

Assignment programme for 1985

ASSIGNMENT	CLOSING DATE	HARMONY	KEYBOARD HARMONY	MELODY WRITING	COUNTERPOINT
1	11 February	• Definitions • General principles • Tonality • Figured bass symbols • Triads in a four-part texture	• Orientation • General principles • Triads in a four-part texture		
2	4 March	• Triads in root position : voice leading • Triads in root position : connecting of chords	• Triads in root position : connecting of chords and voice leading		
3	15 - 25 April (Keyboard harmony)	REVISION	REVISION	• Introduction • "Question and answer" • Anacrusis	
4	15 April	• Triads in first inversion • Phrase structure and cadences • Triads on VII and II • Harmonic progression	• Triads in first inversion • Triads on VII and II	• Rhythmic structure; the four bar phrase • Unity and variety; the eight bar phrase	
5	14 May	• Triads in second inversion • Triads on VI and III • Harmonic progression (continued) • Nonharmonic tones	• Triads in second inversion • Triads on VI and III	• Development • Sequences	
6	10 June	• The dominant quartad • Nonharmonic tones (continued) • The technique of harmonisation	• Revision : harmonising a melody • The dominant quartad	• Phrasing • Implied harmony • Cadences	• Introduction
7	8 July	• Secondary dominants N.B. In the Keyboard harmony and analysis examination you will not be required to make use of secondary dominants in your harmonisations. Secondary dominants might, however, occur in the analyses	• Nonharmonic tones	• Compound time • Twelfth and sixteen bar melodies • Minor keys	• The single melodic line
8	22 - 26 July (Keyboard harmony)	• Modulation	• Modulation	• Modulation • Melodies for a particular medium	• The combination of two melodic lines

"Whoever you are you're special,
There's no one quite like you;

The continuation of the jingle is equally significant for the student!

Your destiny is in your hands,
The path is yours to choose.
Make the most of life".

With this in view, the department decided to canvas its students during 1985 to ascertain, amongst other things, whether the degree study provides them with tuition and scope necessary to meet the demands of their profession. An extensive questionaire was sent out to 352 persons, of which 172 responded. See p. 16a for an example of the questions set.

A discussion of some of the findings of the investigation appears in Ars Nova, Vol. 18, 1986, p. 26-32. Perceptive evaluation arising out of the answers received are:

i) that most of the students who responded to the questionaire have a good musical background and a sophisticated and developed musical taste;

ii) that 61,7% of the group indicated that an introductory course on rudiments of music (including principles of form) would prepare them better for their degree study. This has now been implemented by incorporating the relevant study in the course Introduction to Musicology for 1988;

iii) because of the minimum entrance requirements applied, a great number of people who would experience problems studying for the BMus degree are eliminated;

iv) the race distribution of the students is:

White	-	90,7%
Black	-	4,1%
Coloured	-	2,9%
Asian	-	2,3%

v) in general, the degree serves the needs of the community admirably.

30. How would you evaluate the following aspects of tuition by means of (sund) cassettes on the following *four-point scale*?

	Very important 4	important 3	Less important 2	Use less 1	
(1) As additional study material					31
(2) As feedback in regard to assignments					32
(3) As feedback in regard to discussion classes					33
(4) As a better way o explaining the study material					34
(5) As offering the added value of music examples realized in sound					35
(6) As feedback in regard to keyboard harmony assignmens					36
(7) As a means of maintaining closer contact with yourlecturers					37

4-3-2-1

GENERAL

31. Would you say that thepractical application of harmony at the keyboard should be an essential ingredient of harmony uition?

(1) Yes [_] (2) No [_] 38

32. Would you prefer GradeVIII instead of the Licentiate qualificatin as the practical acquirement for the BMus degee in Musicology at Unisa?

(1) Yes [_] (2) No [_] 39

33. Do you find that the practical component (Licentiate) is a necessity

	Yes	No	
(1) for your studies at Unisa?			
(2) for a BMus qualification?			
(3) for your job?			40
	(1)	(2)	

34. Do you think that an introductory course on the basic principles of music (for example, principles of form) would have prepared you better for the degree course?

(1) Yes [_] (2) No [_] 41

35. What motivated you to enrol for the BMus course?

(1) The possibility of an improvement in salary [_]
(2) Improved chances for promotion [_]
(3) The gaining of more knowledge and insight [_]
(4) Other reasons (specify): [_]

.....

.....

..... 42

36. What is your ultimate goal; what do you wish to achieve with the knowledge and degree certificate gained?

.....

.....

.....

..... 43

Thank you for your co-operation.

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UNISA and Music Degrees in the United Kingdom and Ireland

Although not specifically relevant to music study in Southern Africa, it is of interest to note how UNISA's BMus compares in prescribed courses followed to that of British and Irish universities. A random choice of universities was made, - two English, two Scottish, and one Irish - and their most recent calendars were consulted for the survey, (1980-6). See p. 17a for the Table.

Observations arising from this table are:

i) All universities have a minimum performance requirement;

ii) UNISA excludes courses such as orchestration, composition per se, performance interpretation, etc., and concentrates on basic academic courses;

iii) UNISA offers no choice of direction in its first degree. Choice has been introduced into numerous other South African BMus degrees, e.g. Natal;

iv) Apart from Reading University, UNISA is the only university to have a course in Music Bibliography;

v) Three universities (Reading, Edinburgh and Glasgow) insist on an extended essay in the undergraduate study;

vi) Music within the BA concept requires study in non-music courses. Some South African BMus curricula also have this requirement, e.g. the Witwatersrand University;

vii) Most first degrees are awarded after three years of study with a one year Honours course as additional study. UNISA is four plus one.

viii) Only Reading University offers a Combined Course Degree, which is a four year degree, viz:

Music and English Literature
Music and Italian
Music and French
Music and German;

ix) Although Harmony and Counterpoint is not studied per se at Reading, composition techniques do cover this area to some extent. Other universities differentiate between the academic study of Harmony

TABLE

BRITISH AND IRISH UNIVERSITIES AND UNISA (B.MUS AND B.A. MUSIC)

SUBJECT	Reading University	Hull University	Glasgow University	Edinburgh University	Dublin University		UNISA
	BA	BMUS	BMUS	BMUS	BA	BMUS	BMUS
Music Bibliography	x						x
Harmony		x	x	x	x		x
Counterpoint		x	x	x	x		x
History of Music (selected periods)	x		x	x			
History of Music (comprehensive)		x			x	x	x
Acoustics				x	x	x	x
Composition	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Score Reading				x			
Orchestration	x	x	x	x		x	
Form (selected)		x		x		x	
Form (comprehensive)							x
Singing				x			
Practical (performance)	x		x			x	x
Practical (musicianship)		x		x	x		
Aural	x	x				x	
Analysis & Criticism	x	x	x			x	
Interpretation (performance)	x						
Extended Essay	x	x		x			
Non-Music Subject	x				x		
*Specialized Direction (choice)	x		x		x		
Combined degree	x						
Duration of Degree:							
BMus		3	3	3	3	3	4
BMus Hons.			1	1			1
B.A.	3						
combined B.A.	4						
*Specialist Direction							
Aesthetics & Electronic Music				x			
Composition	x		x		x		
Performance	x		x		x		
Musicology	x				x		
History of Music			x				
Ethnomusicology				x			

and that of Counterpoint, and also of practical composition;

x) BMus degrees vary in emphasis at the universities mentioned. Each has its own individuality;

xi) All degrees are Western Music orientated.

In general, UNISA's degree compares most favourably with what is offered in the United Kingdom, even if its scope is more restricted in character. It serves a single purpose, and serves it well.

A Major Shortcoming

Professor Geldenhuys' article (referred to above) identifies a major problem quite clearly:

> "It was soon realized that there were basic shortcomings in the Black community with regard to music instruction at school level. Although considerable time is devoted to choir-singing, the learning of songs is by means of the tonic solfa system. As a result, the concept of music notation which is essential for the study of Western music, is seldom mastered. There is also little opportunity for instrumental music tuition in the Classical tradition, while free access to an harmonic 'teaching' instrument such as the piano, often does not exist". (My translation). [35]

Music at UNISA, in both departments, is the study of Western music. Apart from a section in the first year course Introduction to Musicology, and Paper 8 of the Honours study, the music of the other South African communities is not catered for at all. The present BMus curriculum is ideally directed and suited to the European community, and serves its purpose well for those persons who are fortunate enough to have had practical and theoretical instruction to a reasonably advanced level. There are many 'Europeans' in South Africa who are also not 'fortunate' and still would wish to embark on music as a subject at university level. The BMus is closed for them too.

If we turn our attention to music making in our Black communities, we can state without reserve that in certain genres it is 'alive and well', having found avenues of expression in:

(a) choral singing - witness the ATASA Choir competition and the Ford Choir competition, in which the singers present a work in the vernacular by a Black composer, and one from the Western repertoire; and

(b) township jazz - (Mbhaqanga) which imitates Western styles, and is composed by both rural and urban musicians.

There are also the indigenous folk songs which are performed for entertainment at merry-making parties, concerts and weddings. We need only refer to two recent books, 'Music in the Mix' by Muff Andersson, - an emotional and reactionary history of South African popular music, - and 'In Township Tonight' by David Coplan, - South Africa's Black City Music and Theatre - [36] to realize how virile this Black music is. Coplan is forced to conclude:

> The struggle for cultural autonomy goes on in urban black South Africa, and the processes of cultural transformation outlined here continue to operate in relation to the external factors and power relations of South African society. Inheritors of the legacy of Doornfontein and Sophiatown, innumerable backyard bands and school vocal groups perform at weddings, funerals, meetings, and parties throughout the townships. Black and multi-racial theatre companies are creating new forms of socially and politically relevant urban drama. In Soweto and places like it, indigenous urban township jazz, popular, and religious music have found a new environment for growth. Though the government and the white entertainment industry remain powerful forces to contend with, the performing arts continue to play an active role in the evolution of black identity and the internal definition of black aspirations in South Africa. [37]

This music is worthy of study and of understanding by all South Africa's peoples. As Joseph Kerman says of musicology, "the musicologist sees music as fully as possible in its total context".[38]

The picture of music education in Black schools is not so favourable however. Music is not a school subject and most music making takes the form of singing only, taught through the limited system of tonic solfa. Elizabeth Oerhle writes:

> "He (New) says that the introduction of western type schooling in Africa is also having devastating effects on African culture as it is rapidly changing today. This is particularly true in music education with high priority being given to the teaching of western notation. The type of music education being offered in black schools in South Africa attests to this".[39]

There is no way a student from this background could qualify for entry to the UNISA BMus degree study.

Professor Khabi Mngoma pleads for a greater balance in music education in South Africa:

> "The trend of Music Education in South African institutions has been to follow the esoteric and elitist line of empha= sizing Classical Western Music, to the exclusion of other styles found in South Africa..... Indeed Western Musical culture is enduringly powerful - backed by a highly developed technology and economics. It does not, however, meet nor serve, nor satisfy the cultural needs and criteria of an African student. It tends to inhibit his musical expression, growth and experience of music as it obtains in his society and eventually eliminate him from that society".[40]

The goals in the teaching of music at all levels of our education system should take into account the heterogenous nature of South African society. With this in mind, "Music Theory as a discipline must go beyond the

prescriptions of theorists that have based their principles on Western models only".[41] M. Makena believes that though "African music is presently under stress it has a future that will provide a basis for truly South African music."[42] The universal nature of Black music is perhaps perceived in the fact that:

i) African music has successfully been fused with that of Western music in the composition "Half Moon" (1984) by Alexander Rahbari, "an Iranian composer and conductor who spent some time in South Africa. It is a choral work, based on Zulu and Sotho folksongs, accompanied by a symphony orchestra in Western style, with African percussion added. It was performed by the South African National Youth Orchestra and the combined Black choir of Johannesburg and Vereeniging, with Alexander Rahbari as conductor"...[43] and

ii) Paul Simon, international singing artist, has been able to inter= weave his music with that of the group from South Africa, the Ladysmith Black Mamboza. Kevin Volans, South African composer, considers them to be one of this country's "national treasures".[44]

A complicating factor in the whole issue is that of politics. While many Black students may want to study and be aware of Western music, it is seen as suspect, as the music of the 'colonist', of the 'oppressor', and now of the 'settler'. Discussions I have had with Black headmasters, teachers, and choirmasters at the African choir competitions I have adjudicated, bear this out. Nevertheless, I am always asked what UNISA can offer the Black music student so that he can acquire a greater under= standing of music.

Other South African communities face the same problem in music education.

A Possible Solution

Professor Theo van Wijk, in his closing address at the end of the 1986 UNISA academic year, stressed a number of important fundamentals essential to the role of a university in society. He pointed out that the university should have a purpose; "clearly.....it should be producing the kind or

kinds of manpower society requires, and in the appropriate ratio".[45] He proceeded further to state that "social or economic elitism has little place in modern life. Equality of opportunity is a basic human right, including equality of educational opportunity. University education must be available to all who qualify for it and are able to benefit by it. But all do not qualify and all will not benefit. If we accept that universities are called upon to train the best minds, the future leaders in their professions and communities, they cannot compromise on standards of admission or of tuition."[46]

UNISA, more than any other South African university, is the one which can truly serve all its communities, and where there is a need, it can turn its attention to meeting the challenge.

Initially the solution might appear to be, either:

i) to adapt the present BMus curriculum in such a way as to provide a multi-directional approach. Certain courses would be common to all students, thereafter a choice of study area follows. The problem here remains one of admission standard! or

ii) create a number of seperate BMus degrees each with its own direction and admission requirements, e.g. BMus (Western Music)
BMus (Indian Music)

I do not believe the answer is in adapting the BMus curriculum or creating seperate curricula. Perhaps the solution can be found within UNISA's own history of music education! "Music" was originally a subject for the Bachelor of Arts degree (see p. 7 of this paper), designed to meet the needs of the European community. Today that community together with all the other South African groups, needs a course of study which will provide instruction, understanding, and insight into the "musics" of this country.

If the principle applied at UNISA in the past is uplifted, redesigned, re-structured and re-implemented, it will serve a) those who do not wish to follow a specialized music degree, and b) who are yet searching for insight into the world of music. The course could provide instruction

which would be illuminating to all South Africa's peoples because it deals with all South Africa's music cultures.

John D'Oliveira suggests that:

> "One of the reasons Southern Africa is in such a mess is the fact that white Southern Africans have for so long refused to think of themselves as Africans. For centuries, the whites in this region - as well as in most other parts of Africa - considered themselves Europeans, and their settlements, outposts of European values, European democracy, European religion and European culture. Immigrants from Europe gene= rally came to Africa and transplanted to this continent all the trappings of the European way of life...."[47]

The proposed Music course would certainly contribute to understanding between all Southern Africa's peoples and help convince "whites that they share a common destiny with the rest of the Africans in the country".[48]

It is not my intention here to set out a course of study. However, included in the three year graded structure could be:

i) General rudiments of theory leading to advanced theory;
ii) Musical concepts e.g. Form, ensembles, improvisation, etc;
iii) Notation systems;
iv) Introduction to the stylistic study of

(a) Western Music
(b) African Music
(c) Indian Music

v) Studies of selected world music, e.g. Eastern music, Latin American etc.,
vi) A detailed study of ONE of the music cultures of South Africa - a choice option.

Admission to the subject "Music" would be automatic, as long as the can= didate qualified for entry to BA Study. Certain related courses may be made compulsory.

BMus student numbers within UNISA's department of musicology reached an all-time high in 1980, after which there has been a steady decline, with an increase this year.

1979 = 218
1980 = 227
1981 = 196
1982 = 200
1983 = 201
1984 = 188
1985 = 181
1986 = 169
1987 = 188

It would appear that a ceiling of student numbers under present circumstances has been achieved, and that the department's growth relative to the university's total student intake will fall behind.

Growth within a department - in vision and in numbers - is a healthy factor. To offer a BMus (Western Music), and the History of (Western) Music as a BA course, ideal as it is for a select group, denies so much for so many people!

Coda

If Poland's five questions (see p. 3) are now answered, depending on the standpoint a person takes, interesting conclusions may be drawn. What is basically argued for in this discussion is not the removal or even change from UNISA's excellent BMus degree study, but rather for an additional much needed avenue to bring music to all in South Africa. One-day music education at school level throughout the country will hopefully be such that the problem will no longer exist.

In my inaugural lecture, referring to Black composers, I said: "As white composers emerged with the development of the music departments in the universities, so with education opportunities offered to the Black composers, they too will take their due place in the international art music world now extant in this country".[49] Peoples from all communities

will also benefit greatly if a study course as proposed was developed. To quote Professor Johann Potgieter (Fort Hare)

> "Indeed, it is vision we seem to need more than anything else in our time". [50]

THANK YOU.

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6. The Star Tonight, Johannesburg. January 9th, 1987, p. 1.

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12. Op. cit., p. 42.

13. Op. cit., p. 42.

14. Op. cit., p. 91.

15. Op. cit., p. 116.

16. Op. cit., p. 159.

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25. Archival material before 1934 is missing.

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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

VISUAL MEDIA AND ART HISTORY

Rayda Becker

The History of Art Department at UNISA states clearly in the Introductory Guide HAR100-A[1] that central to the subject, as taught in the Department, is the artwork itself. Ironically, however, that practice is limited. The actual, physical, tangible art object is examined a few times only during the three and four year programmes. For the rest of its teaching the Department is reliant on some form of reproduction as are other Art History Departments both here and overseas. It is in the nature of Art History to investigate developments in style, subject matter, technique and culture generally from a number of different periods and places, and no respectable department, is so parochial as to offer courses where the only works discussed are available within their immediate locality.

Reproductions - visual media - are standard equipment in Art History Departments. Advances on the technical side of reproduction in photography and printing have led to substantial improvements in teaching methods. As recently as twenty-five years ago some teachers were still dependant upon small scale, poor quality, black-and-white images. Although colour printing was available it was of little value. A German trained lecturer of mine adamantly refused, during the sixties, to use colour reproductions. She felt that the colour was so inaccurate as to render a false interpretation of the work. The technique of colour transparencies has led not only to more accurate colour recording, but also made projection presentation a much easier process than the cumbersome epidiascope procedures of before.

Despite these improvements, or because of them, much has been written about the disadvantages and problems that arise when reproductions rather than the actual work is studied. Direct experience of the artwork is promoted whenever possible. Visits to museums and galleries are encouraged and no responsible teacher would deny the student that experience. Yet, even this is fraught with problems. A visit to a gallery or museum can reveal less than it promises. There is no guarantee that a direct encounter with an artwork will invoke responses, let alone the desired ones. Obstacles

of various kinds interfere with a sympathetic apprehension, such as crowds of people jostling to view a selected work, high or obscure placing of the artwork, and heavy frames or glass coverings which interfere with the visibility of the image. Moreover the viewer must generate the right mood of "expectancy and concentration" and attempt serious contemplation often in overcrowded and overheated environments. Yet, the primary, visual source must be confronted. Peter Owen in his book concerned with analyzing the visual elements of painting writes that, "It is only through surrender to the visual impact of the original work that a full experience may be possible".[2]

Questions arise, what is a "full experience". Is it viewing the works as they were conceived or as we see them in a gallery space? What are the implications of hanging an altarpiece, designed for a church, in a gallery? Surely such a piece is no more inaccurate in a photograph than in a gallery?[3]

Relocation and reproduction are as old as the first century B.C., when the Romans appropriated a number of Greek sculptures and had them copied using a mechanical pointing technique they had developed. From the sixteenth to the nineteenth centuries engravings were used to copy major works. However, the significant difference in the twentieth century is that reproductions are produced quickly, mechanically and in vast numbers.

Reproductions for art historical studies provide an accurate and objective rendering of the artwork. It is photography in the service of art and not photography as art. The purpose is documentation and not interpretation, although the skill and eye of the photographer will inevitably play some part in the quality of that recording. Certain sculptures with deep undercutting or modulated surfaces, lend themselves to dramatic effects. Artworks are photographed under controlled lighting conditions and from ideal viewing positions. While acknowledging the increased clarity this affords the spectator, we must recognise at the same time that photographs sometimes record images that were in fact not designed to be seen clearly. The frieze of the Parthenon, or lunettes in churches, were placed way above the viewers eye-level. Early Renaissance frescoes were conceived in narrative cycles and Gothic cathedrals as a complex of architecture and sculpture. Photography which extracts parts from the totality are distortions of how

these works would originally been experienced.

From a practical teaching point of view none the less reproductions possess a number of advantages. Works from different places can be seen together at one time. We can compare, for example, the influence of San Vitale, Ravenna on the Church at Aix-la-Chapelle without having to travel the distance between the two, or examine the effects an African mask (still in Paris) had on Picasso's Les Demoiselles d'Avignon (now in New York). Importantly, reproductions allow the spectator time to concentrate unself-consciously in private and to relate written information to an image. Reproductions are never closed for renovations or out for restoration or on loan to an exhibition.

The major shortcoming with reproductions is that the artwork loses its presence as an autonomous, original object. The very quality which makes it unique is undermined by mechanical reproduction. Images become standardized. Representation of scale is highly problematic with reproductions. Images printed in a book or slides projected on a screen, often appear the same size. A small bronze figure and a large kouros, both from pre-Classical Greece have been printed the same size in G Richter's A Handbook of Greek Art.[4] While the dimensions of the actual work are frequently provided (incidentally not in the Richter), it is up to the spectator to reconstruct the size either imaginatively or in some practical way. Sculpture is usually shown from one viewing position. Architecture is at an even greater disadvantage, since no single reproduction can begin to capture adequately the scale and space encompassed by a building. The fact that in the process of printing or projection the image has no fixed dimensions, which it has in actuality, can lead if not quite to false effects then to some deviant ones. When a small painting is enlarged, for example, it may seem to be freely painted, while a large work reduced may seem to be tightly executed.

Still, with all their inadequacies in relation to the real work, reproductions have affected the discipline. Art History has become that which can and has been photographed. When preparing a lecture or guide a teacher will inevitably illustrate it with what is available. The range of mass produced images means that other kinds of assessment and comparison can take

place. We are being educated by photographs. "In teaching us a new visual code photographs enlarge our notions of what we have a right to observe. They are a grammar, and even more importantly, an ethics of seeing" writes Susan Sontag.[5] That very sameness of production which photography imposes on an artwork, which from a certain perspective may be considered reductive, does at the same time, create a kind of equality among images. From such a position, established hierarchies may be re-assessed. The masterpiece, for example, without its location in the ritual space of the museum invites a re-evaluation. It does, in a sense, confront the work with the myth of its own perfection.

Notions of what constitutes style may be questioned in relation to images from other cultures. The past and present can be seen together and on the same terms. A catalogue raisonné, for example, may alter previous notions about the consistency of an artist's production. Photographic devices allow, as well for changes in reading. Enlargement not only renders an image or part of an image more precisely, but might also reveal new structures within that image.

Ultimately, however, reproductions require a different kind of activity on the part of the spectator. Malraux puts it this way, "Mechanical reproduction, like the art of fiction, subdues reality to imagination. ... reproduction enlarges our knowledge rather than satisfies our contemplation."[6] With the loss of experience as a touchstone to quality, we are forced into other more intellectual pursuits. In that search we become more reliant on words. Words either try to fill the gap between replica (fiction, knowledge) and reality (artwork, experience), or words which extend our concept of what art is. A debatable issue, but one worth considering, is the extent to which new ideas in art history together with the move away from formal, visual analysis and appreciation, have arisen out of working from reproductions. And whether because of its position/relationship between the work and artist on the one hand, and the spectator on the other, the reproduction has established a kind of middle ground, and in the process claimed some territorial right to independent significance.

At UNISA the History of Art Department, makes use of several kinds of visual media, over and above recommended books. Since we infrequently teach in a

group situation, where the students are all directed to the same projected image, we are obliged to send that image to as many students as are registered. Black-and-white photographic prints have been used in the guides and tutorial letters. Diagrams and drawings provide supportive material for architecture. Colour was excluded from the programme until five years ago when the Department introduced slide kits (strips of colour transparencies) into its teaching packages. Slides are still the easiest, most accurate and cheapest means of reproducing multiple colour images. The strips are attached to a guide and accompanied by instructions on mounting and projection. Hand-held 35 mm slide-viewers are recommended since they are reasonably inexpensive and not all the students have access to a projector. The strips are made in the United Kingdom. In 1989 we are planning to send each student registered for History of Art, one-hundred-and-twenty images. This might seem a generous allowance and yet when analyzed it is not so owing to the extent of the curriculum. The third year student will, for example, receive only twelve slides for Fauvism, eight for Cubism and six for Contemporary Black Art in South Africa.

The University also possesses a comprehensive slide collection which is housed and funded by the library. Functioning primarily as a resource for lecturers and study groups held here in Pretoria and in the regional centres, it is also used by members of staff from other Departments and both the undergraduate and post-graduate students in the Department. At present there are approximately 35 000 slides in the collection and we see it as an area for growth in the future. In the new library building the slide-section has been allocated a larger work area and additional abodias and light tables.

Obviously the new reprographic media such as holograms, video discs and computers seem to offer prospects in which the problems of studying from a secondary source will be reduced even further.[7] The idea of being able to reproduce a sculpture, for example, in three-dimensions or to be able to rotate it on a screen, or to impose the structural axes are all exciting. Yet, we have only just begun in our Department to explore the potential of video tapes for Art History. They are more readily available both commercially and for in-house production. Video tapes are eminently adaptable for the subject, since the technicians have promised "true

colour" and movement can be included. As in film, which has proved to be too expensive to produce or purchase, the video camera can act as a mobile eye and move around sculpture, across paintings and through buildings. Useful too for individual learning is the fact that the video machines can be used to stop, retrack and slow down a tape, and hence meet specific needs.

In the future the availability of machines and programmes will depend on a number of factors, some inside and some outside UNISA. Many projects will remain in the realm of possibility until such time as the necessary expertise is available locally, costs are reduced, and the basic energy source, electricity, is available to all students.

This paper will be illustrated with slides.

NOTES:

1. History of Art: Study guide 1 for HAR100-A. (Introductory Study Guide)(Pretoria: UNISA, 1985), p.8.

2. Peter Owen, Painting: The Appreciation of the Arts/5. (London: Oxford University Press, 1970), p.277.

3. Some of these thoughts are the result of discussions held with Brenda Schmahmann, History of Art and Fine Arts Department, UNISA.

4. Gisela Richter, A Handbook of Greek Art. (London: Phaidon, 1959) figures 254 and 88.

5. Susan Sontag, On Photography. (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin, Reprint 1977) p.3.

6. Andre Malraux, "Museum without Walls" in: The Voices of Silence (St Albans, Herts: Paladin, 1974) pp. 24 and 30.

7. John Duke, "Interactive Video" Educational Media International, 1983-4, pp.12-17.

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CONFERENCE: DISTANCE EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA - PREPARING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

DATE: 18 - 22 May 1987

PARTICIPANT: Professor S.G. Kossick
Department of English
University of South Africa (TvW 6-8, Ext. 1141)

TITLE OF PAPER: Tutoring for the Open University

While living in England during the 1970's, I had the valuable experience of tutoring for the Open University - in the London area - over a period of three academic years. As might be expected, many of the teaching techniques and use of various media, as well as distance teaching problems and their solutions, are common to the University of South Africa and the Open University in Britain. However, there are differences sufficiently marked in staff structure, student contact, media utilization and general pedagogic methodology to make it worthwhile, I think, to isolate several of these differences for specific discussion.

Though I shall now and then point to what I came to regard as particular strengths or shortcomings in the Open University system, it is not my intention in this paper to draw any final evaluative conclusions or to suggest that the procedures I shall outline are necessarily better or less effective in either of the Universities. This would certainly be invidious given the widely differing demographic and cultural circumstances that exist in Britain and Southern Africa. With this proviso in mind, it may nevertheless be instructive to consider the diverse approaches of the two Universities since there is always a possibility that such consideration might elicit new or revised applications.

As most of those present today are familiar with the workings of the University of South Africa, I shall, in the interests of conciseness, make mainly implicit rather than explicit comparisons, and concentrate the major proportion of attention on the Open University and its organization.

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The central principle that infirms the entire structure of the Open University is decentralization. Whilst distance teaching is, of course, the raison d'etre of the University - bringing tertiary education to members of society who for a variety of reasons cannot attend a conventional university - the main thrust of the thinking behind the planning has been to reduce as far as possible the distance between student and academic. This is most palpably evident in the extensive use made of British broadcasting services; both radio and television programmes are built into almost all courses offered, requiring the student to tune into either audial or visual presentations at least once a week. Though I encountered several programmes, notably on television, which were more entertaining and decorative than academically essential, there can be no doubt that students respond positively to the idea. The fact that programmes relating to one's own specific areas of study are being piped into one's own sitting room, gives students a strong sense of immediacy and involvement. In addition the knowledge that the material is being made available all over the United Kingdom, seems to contribute to a feeling of student community and common purpose. (This feeling is, incidentally, probably heightened by the quite inhumanely early hour of many of the broadcasts!)

Much stress is laid on attendance at summer school - usually of one week's duration - which is mandatory for most courses. Here again every effort is made to stimulate contact and to simulate the atmosphere of a conventional residential campus. The summer schools do in fact take place on university campuses throughout the country - staggered over the summer

recess period - and students are expected to stay in the residences and participate fully in all activities. Like our own vacation schools, group visits and on-campus tutorials, these occasions afford fruitful opportunities for direct learning, question-asking and discussion. Nor is the interaction with other students to be underestimated, especially for the mature person who may feel inadequate and sometimes even foolish to be attempting further studies in adulthood.

So much for the more visible externals of the Open University's efforts to circumvent the problems of distance teaching. More fundamentally these have been addressed - or at least a concerted effort has been made to address difficulties - in the decentralized staffing structure and delegation of academic responsibility. Besides levels of seniority within each academic unit, staffing falls into three main sections: first, those centred at Milton Keynes itself, the Open University's headquarters; second, those in the thirteen Regional offices spread across the country; and last but, as we shall see, by no means least, part-time tutoring staff appointed by the Regional offices in the sub-divisions of each region. To give an example of this devolution, London region - which probably has the most dense student population of all the regions - consists of over twenty sub-divisions, drawing on tutors throughout the Greater London area.

The actual content of each course is designed by academic teams in each faculty at Milton Keynes (and for interdisciplinary courses, by teams made up of members of the relevant faculties). These same academic teams are responsible for the study guide material and for vetting all pre-prepared tutorial matter pertinent to the course concerned. They also establish the standards students are expected to attain, monitor the individual student's progress through surveillance of tutor-marked written essays, set examinations and award the final pass or fail grades. (The relationship of this key academic team to the tutors in the field will be dealt with later in this paper.)

As may be deduced from this brief outline of the duties entrusted to the Milton Keynes academic teams, they are in a sense all-powerfull.

To them falls the vital responsibility of what the Open University will teach and at what level. Decisions concerning the revision, updating, scrapping or retention of courses and of study material are arrived at through analysis of assignment results, collation of tutors' reports on student work and, of course, final examination results. The system seems to work well, but it has to my mind one major disadvantage which is that the academics who have the largest say in the overall management of courses are the very ones who have the least direct access to the students themselves.

The principle of decentralization on which the Open University rests represents, as I mentioned earlier, an earnest attempt to close the gap in distance teaching. This is partially achieved through the Regional offices where students can obtain information about courses, study aids, and local facilities such as study centres, libraries and student computer services. Most important of all, though, it is through the Regional Director - whose responsibility it is to interview and appoint all tutors in his area - that the Open University student is allocated to a tutor, or in the case of foundation-course students, to a tutor-counsellor. (The BA degree at the Open, by the way, is awarded on the completion of six full course credits, two of which must be at foundation or first-year level, and the other four at higher levels. Not more than two courses may be taken in one year, thus ensuring a minimum of three years' study for a bachelor's degree.)

Once a student has been allocated a tutor in a specific course for which he has enrolled, he (the student) no longer feels out on a limb. He has a living link with the University and, I venture to suggest, he tends to invest the tutor with far more importance than the architects of this hierachical order may have intended. Usually the tutor lives in the same area and usually meets his students (both individually and as a group) much more frequently than is required by the formal timetable. The year's work in all courses is divided into 32 to 34 weekly study units, and it is beneficial to both student and tutor to meet each week to survey the new territory. Regular group meetings are also planned in advance at

local study centres (mostly schools), in addition to which the student frequently brings his problems - both academic and personal - to the tutor for discussion and advice. In other words, what the student acquires in being allocated a tutor is not only a friendly neighbourhood teacher who can give him individual and group tuition, but a mentor and often even a friend. (In some cases, one might add, the role of tutor could be more accurately described as academic nanny!)

Regular written assignments are set for each course (averaging ten, of which the seven best marks are used to arrive at an assessment grade for the year's work). It is one of the tutor's tasks to mark these assignments and to comment fully on them. The work is then sent to Milton Keynes where key comments and the mark are entered on the student's record. Despite its manifest advantages in the sphere of student contiguity, one of the problems of this tutor system which may have occurred to you is how to ensure a common standard. A small army of part-time tutors scattered over an extremely wide area and emanating from varying academic backgrounds may be supposed to have a very erratic concept of excellence. Added to this, each tutor certainly has at least one other job if he is going to survive financially, and in all probability has met no member of the Open University staff other than the Regional Director who appointed him. The circular letters which go out from the academic teams to tutors before the due date of each assignment can only give fairly flexible guidelines for essay marking, particularly in the Humanities where there are seldom right or wrong answers. These guidelines - like the drafts of tutorial letters which are circulated in the English Department here just before marking of an assignment begins - are very useful in clarifying what the question-setter had in mind, and also in establishing what points to look out for in student essays. But they cannot replace the sort of academic cross-fertilization which takes place among the staff of more conventional teaching units.

It is in this area of tutor-marked assignments, which is the student's only tangible feed-back on his progress and level of performance in relation to other students, that decentralization is at its weakest. For the

course tutor, who is in effect the personification of the decentralization policy, and who is in the most intensive, direct touch with students, normally has no initial communication at all with the team which devised the course and set the questions. What exchange he does have ensues after the event, so to speak, when scripts he has marked may be chosen for monitoring by what one may call the 'home team'. He will then be informed that his marking is either up to or below standard, and may even receive a computer-drawn graph indicating how his range of marks compares with the average. By then, of course, it is too late to rectify faults and when the next assignment comes along, it may well present a totally different set of subtleties, especially if the course concerned is an interdisciplinary one.

This negative point aside, the interchange that can and should develop between local course tuitor and student frequently offers considerable rewards for both. The number of students allotted to each tutor does not exceed sixteen; this facilitates tutorial discussion and also ensures that there is sufficient time for individual difficulties to be examined. Besides actual tuition, tutors get to know their group intimately and can therefore anticipate problem areas, help in the organization of work-schedules and generally smooth the path of students who as adults often find family and work pressures interrupting their studies.

The many-sided relationship that I have rather sketchily delineated is of particular importance in interdisciplinary courses where the student may encounter a bewildering diversity. Vocabulary that he has been used to apply in a certain context, for instance, may take on entirely new connotations within another discipline. His approach to the subject, too, may have to be adapted, and students not infrequently find that skills painstakingly acquired in the study of one discipline have to be radically modified or even abandoned in the study of another. Needless to say, this is also true of interdisciplinary BA degrees offered by most South African universities, but here the student has an entire academic year in which to aquaint himself with the demands and conventions of the courses he has selected. In interdisciplinary courses offered by the Open University at

second and third levels, on the other hand, he may have to cope with as many as eight or nine disparate subjects within a single 34-week year.

The confusion - not to say panic - that this can evoke, is partially allayed by the accessibility of course tutors. The University also employs the strategy of staggering the despatch of study packages throughout the year to coincide with the one- or two-week units into which a course is divided. This helps to avoid the student's being overwhelmed by an apparently insurmountable mass of material, and at the same time reinforces the idea of orderly, well-spaced learning.

The theory is impeccable but the practice is not always enforceable. Students habitually fall behind, not only because of stumbling blocks they may encounter in their work, but for numerous domestic reasons. This may not be disastrous in a unitary course, but it can be seriously disabling in an interdisciplinary one. While the weekly or fortnightly block system helps to pace the student's work, it can also act as a frightening academic metronome, ticking away inexorably at the student's back. It may even precipitate him into by-passing completely units of unfamiliar territory in an interdisciplinary course, so jeopardising his chances of passing.

Though I could go on for some time elaborating on detail, I think I have said sufficient in this paper to give you at least some insight into the mechanics of the Open University system. My remarks have of necessity been rather general, but perhaps if there is time during the course of this Conference, I may be able to discuss more informally the particular problems - and I must hasten to add - the particular pleasures I experienced in tutoring for the Open University and in coming to gripps with a second level course which ranged over seven distinct disciplines and which I found eminently enriching.

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PRACTICAL ENGLISH : A STRATEGY FOR THE FUTURE

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I choose to believe that, when the proverbialist pronounced on coats and cutting cloth, he had width in mind and not quality. The same man said something about silk purses but, as far as I can recall, did not rule out useful leather pouches. In this paper I shall incline towards adapting his homespun wisdom, to enquiring whether there may not be simple and logical solutions to our problems in teaching Practical English at UNISA. I shall avoid detail and the snares of supportive theory because I am concerned with an idea only - and because the teaching situation at UNISA is rarely what the writers of textbooks have in mind. Our jacket has an unusual cut.

And there is no doubt in my mind that we do have problems. Most of them derive from changes that are taking place in the composition of our student body. Prominent among these changes is the increase each year in the proportion of Black students who enrol for Practical English. At present Black students constitute 47 percent of the Practical English enrolment.[1] And, looking beyond the Practical English enrolment, we find that Black students invariably choose English as the medium of instruction in the other courses they do. To this we need to add the growing presence of students from other racial groups for whom English is a second, or third, or even foreign language. In consequence there seems to be a general decline in the average proficiency in English throughout the student body. While this is a purely subjective impression, I feel sure that an empirical study would show that impression to be well-founded. What, in effect, seems to have happened is not a decline in the number of students with English as their home language but - as the University's registrations continue to soar - an increase of those

for whom English is no better than a second language.

This trend will inevitably be reflected by students doing Practical English and evidence of such a trend can be inferred from the persistently low pass rate.[2] Also, Practical English students are, I believe, more representative of the student body as a whole than are, say, English I students (where one can reasonably assume that English as the home language predominates and, more important, that English is being studied for its own sake).

This last point - the studying of English for its own sake - is the key factor in distinguishing between traditional, general English courses and the kind of Practical English course I feel we need. In traditional English courses it is taken for granted that the students' interests lie in the examination of literary texts for the ideas they contain, their aesthetic appeal and how they reflect the philosophical or social insights of their authors. But studying English for its own sake relies heavily on a cultural background or heritage shared by authors and readers. How strong this cultural rapport may be between the average English-speaking South African student and the author he studies is open to some speculation, and it stands to reason that the rapport becomes fainter when the student's home language is not English and his sets of cultural associations, allusions and images do not flow naturally from, what may be loosely termed, an 'English background'. In short, traditional, general first year courses in English are usually based on literature and, if students are to derive the full benefit of the experience, a myriad of culturally conditioned associations, responses and values. These are taken for granted along with the assumption that a broad education in English thought and literary treasures is what the students want.

I am not sure that the same holds good for the kind of students we find in Practical English. For one thing, the entertainment that English literature provides is not likely to be their

absorbing interest. For another, English culture, which determines so much of what constitutes the acceptable in the English language, is either something quite foreign to many of them or something imperfectly understood. For yet another - and down-to-earth - reason, a one year course in English is often thrust upon them by their curricula. Given such a body of students, one is entitled to question whether literature will provide then with the training they need. And for students such as these, introducing them to literary criticism only makes the labyrinth bigger. Also, it is a moot point that exposure to a single year of broadly based, traditional English studies will improve their command of the language - especially if the course brings with it a measure of duress.

Another consideration is whether we, placed as we are in the situation of having to cater for students whose needs are increasingly becoming those of the Third World, can afford the luxury of imposing a broad academic English education on those who neither want it nor are likely to use it. Should we not be looking for something more utilitarian, more restricted, but which will still serve our students and the English language? Crudely put, what earthly good is a host of daffodils to an articled clerk struggling to draw up his first lease in English? And how might Julius Caesar, or even Mr Micawber, come to the aid of an auditor reporting on the books of a canning company? I suggest that in Practical English our objective should be to teach a range of English which does not rely too heavily on cultural compatibilities and which is immediately functional and useful.

To some extent the present Practical English course does conform to this objective: Shakespeare and Dickens have given way to the more pragmatic Orwell and Golding. The aim of the course has shifted a little from critical analysis as the ultimate test to comprehension and clear communication. Nevertheless, I do not think that this goes far enough to serve the changing needs of

our students. Once we have accepted that we are no longer in the liberal education business, we must devise other ways of discharging our duty. That duty may once have been the inculcation of a sense of aesthetic discrimination; now it seems more likely to be the equipping of students with a sufficient command of English to allow them to function effectively in their chosen careers. The only feasible way of doing this is for us to cut our losses on what might have been, to recognize that all the possibilities which a general English course offers are unrealistic for this particular group of students. We have to direct their efforts in ways that will assist them in coping with their specialist subjects. This boils down to our providing students with a range of ESP[3] courses. Seen thus, English becomes less of a subject on its own and more the medium in which students can one day further their careers. And let me admit it now - there is a Machiavellian touch to this: if students can see a direct link between their chief interests and their English course, the English course will receive a great deal more of their attention.

Simply to adopt existing ESP courses[4] would not be the solution. As is the case with British and American ESL[5] and EFL[6] aids, their ESL courses are geared to what students in the United Kingdom and the United States require. Again it is a question of the difference that exists between the cultural backgrounds of the First and Third Worlds: current ESP courses are not entirely accessible to South African Practical English students. Moreover, any ESP course at UNISA would have to make allowance for our peculiar situation of having to teach English as a second (or third) language to two essentially different groups of students: one group with Afrikaans as its home language and the other with a variety of Black African languages as its background.

What I propose, therefore, is a core course complemented by a range of ESP elements. The core course together with an ESP

element appropriate to his direction of study would then make up a student's Practical English syllabus. Such a core course would be the common starting point for all students and would also provide common ground in examinations. It would attempt to cover essential grammatical, syntactic and idiomatic features of English. The guiding principle here would be to concentrate on forms that have high frequency or which are remedial by nature. For example, the core course should not subject students to having to master all the possible permutations and subtle intricacies of the English verb, but would focus on those forms which are constantly used. So, too, could attention be paid to the correct use of prepositions - either on their own or as idiom determines their combination with verbs. English pronouns would feature prominently in remedial exercises and such a core course would need to foster an awareness of correct syntax and how best to construct sentences, paragraphs and more sustained pieces of writing.

Because the 'literary' component would be reduced in such a core course, the formal linguistic elements would appear to be more important than they are in the present Practical English syllabus. In reality this would not be the case nor will the core course be rendered dry as dust; the focus on grammar, etc. will be discernible to those who fashion the course, not to those who follow it. Grammar, syntax and usage would be taught unobtrusively in the process of doing exercises on comprehension and in 'hands on' attempts at written communication.

Turning now to the separate ESP complements, the first step would be to establish which subjects/disciplines are involved. I shall hazard a guess that most combinations with Practical English will be legal, social science and education subjects. Clearly the number of students involved in a combination will determine whether an ESP course is warranted or not.

In this paper I can go no further than to propose the idea that

ESP elements make up part of a future Practical English syllabus. Details can only follow once the idea has been considered and accepted - and research has unearthed the full complexity of the task. What is clear at this stage, however, is that there are certain caveats which will dictate the form and direction of the venture. One such caution is that there should be no attempt to usurp the teaching function of other departments. An ESP course should do no more than assist the student to comprehend fully and to train him to communicate effectively on subject matter associated with a given discipline. Another caveat is not to create artificial distinctions simply to satisfy a sense of 'otherness' between one discipline and another. As it is there is some measure of doubt whether markedly different registers for different subjects can be isolated.[7] What I envisage, therefore, is not an attempt to establish one register for science and another for law. Our function would be to monitor and improve students' handling of subject matter, to examine their communicative means and methods, to guide where clarity breaks down and to guard where prolixity threatens.

The compilation of these ESP courses will take time: a great deal of research will be followed by periods of trial and error. Inevitably there will be mistakes and the further we proceed, the more problems there will be. But anticipated set-backs and hurdles should not vitiate what I firmly believe is our only chance of ensuring that Practical English continues to be relevant. Practical English should be allowed to live up to its name by becoming the special handmaiden to the other disciplines.

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1. Based on the 1986 figures: the PEN 100-3 course -
768 Black students; total enrolment 1908
= 40%
the PEB 100-E course -
448 Black students; total enrolment 665

= 67%
both courses -
1216 Black students; total enrolment 2573
= 47%

2. In the region of 36 - 39% for PEN 100-3 and 22 - 27% for PEB 100-3.

3. English for Specific Purposes

4. Such as the English in Focus series which provides ESP courses for Physical Science, Mechanical Engineering, Workshop Practice, Basic Medical Science, Education, Agriculture, Social Studies, and Biological Science. (Series editors: J.P.B.Allen and H.G.Widdowson. Oxford: Oxford University Press.)

5. English as a Second Language

6. English as a Foreign Language

7. See Robinson, P.: ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1980, pp. 16-20.

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SPECIAL LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION

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1. The language problem

Two of the assumptions underlying most of the papers read at this conference are:

(1) that a university cannot function effectively without access to appropriate communication channels and media;
(2) that natural language is the prime building block of the intellectual infrastructure that links subject specialists, students and society.

Within the academic community there is, however, growing concern about our students' (and lecturers') inadequate command of our teaching languages (Afrikaans and English) and the way this lack of basic skills in reading, writing and speaking Afrikaans and English is influencing the accumulation and dissemination of knowledge and effective participation in the education process itself.

A superficial analysis of what is generally, and sometimes rather vaguely, characterized as "the language problem of our students", reveals that there are two main problem areas to be addressed, viz.

(1) the general proficiency in a language or languages (Afrikaans and English), and
(2) proficiency in the special languages ("vaktaal", "Fachsprache", cf. Sager 1981) which are used in special subject communication.

With "general proficiency in a language" is meant the ability to participate in everyday, non-specialized discourse.

In the education process, however, our prime task is to communicate to the student subject-specific knowledge. For this purpose we employ a special language which is characterised by the use of a specific vocabulary consisting of standardized and non-standardized terms, by a

specific selection, usage and frequency of syntactical and lexical forms taken from the general language and by the use of non-verbal signs and abbreviations of rather complex states (tables, diagrams, formulae, symbols, illustrations) (cf. Wieser 1979).

More adequately defined, the term special language refers to the complete set of linguistic phenomena (e.g. words and word forms, sentences, text types), "non-linguistic" phenomena (e.g. the symbols of artificial languages, figures and graphs) and linguistically related phenomena (like specific argumentation procedures) occuring within the specialized sphere of subject communication and which are limited by the stylistic, rhetorical and general communicative norms of that subject field (cf. Hoffmann 1979:16, Sager 1979, 1981).

What this definition implicitly states is the fact that special languages are semi-autonomous systems. Although special languages are derived from and dependent upon general language they are constructed according to a grammar of their own and their effective use demands adherence to subject-specific rules.

As a result of this "special" nature of special languages, it is difficult to study any discipline, or to enter into any kind of learned discourse, without access to and command of the special languages involved. Much of what is termed "the language problem" of our students and lecturers boils down to a lack of proficiency in special languages, i.e. the inability to read and understand subject literature and the inability to use a special language correctly when writing on a subject-specific topic.

2. Problems with special languages

Special language disabilities manifest themselves in various forms and they are also common to those students and lecturers who would otherwise be considered to have a perfect command of English and/or Afrikaans.

A few examples will suffice:

(i) research reports which tend to sound more like biographies or personal statements of intent (typical phrases: "And then I...", "Now we will..."), and which exemplify a lack of knowledge of the use of appropriate text types and stylistic norms (like the use of passive forms to achieve impersonal style);

(ii) attempts at definitions, like "assimilation is when two sounds merge" which show the student's ignorance of the fact that linguistic symbols (terms) are used to refer to concepts of entities, processes and qualities and of his ignorance of the linguistic form and function of definitions.

Many (if not most) introductory texts tend to assume a level of sophistication far above that experienced in the first-year classroom. Too much is taken for granted regarding the students' knowledge of special language communication in general and terminology in particular. Some of the problems students encounter include the following:

(1) the difference between the general language meaning of a word and the specialized concept such a word denotes when used as a term (e.g. linguistic forms like noise, lion, democracy);
(2) the use of linguistic forms which are taken from Latin and Greek or the use of international forms (e.g. anomie, analogy, homology);
(3) the ambiguous use of terms, e.g. the use of the same term (linguistic form) to denote more than one concept in the same subject or in related subjects;
(4) the theory specific or model boundedness of the meaning of terms (e.g. meaning, function);
(5) the subtle meaning differences between related concepts and terms (e.g. federation and confederation)

(cf. Cluver 1978).

Lecturers are notoriously known for using technical terms (which are new to students) without defining them, using non-standardized translations of terms, undefined personal (pet) terms or shifting the meaning of a term as a discussion proceeds without redefining the term. What can be described as a "looseness in usage" or "terminological obfuscation" (cf. Sager 1981) on the part of the lecturer can

cause extreme problems for the student in his efforts to understand such texts, to get to the concepts and conceptual relations which are explained in a text.

3. Teaching special languages

Many of the problems referred to in the previous section follow from the lack of formal special-language training. Where such training does exist, it is usually very informal in nature, that is, limited to one or two lectures.

Aspects of terminology are sometimes mentioned in text books and lectures, but much terminology teaching rarely goes beyond an explication of the difference between the use of a linguistic form as a word and its use as a term. In some text books and study guides the only attempt to assist the student with his terminological problems consists of the addition of an appendix with a list of the terms used in the text (sometimes supplemented with some form of a definition and a translation equivalent).

Although useful, these informal attempts are not enough. Besides access to the specific terminology of a special language, students need to be given a basic general knowledge of special languages as such and be shown how this knowledge can be used for fruitful enquiry, for the analysis of the ideas and theories that make up a field of study, of their basic interconnectedness and differences, as these are expressed in and by the special languages used (cf. Zito 1975).

The lack of formal training in special languages can itself be attributed to the fact that we have never explicitly stated the skills and knowledge our students and lecturers have to possess of special languages in order to be able to participate in special-language communication. When made explicit, however, the discrepancy between the requirements set and the formal training given, becomes so much more apparent. Terminology is again a case in point.

The requirements we set for a student's proficiency in terminology are for the most part retrievable from the prefaces and the lexico-

graphical description techniques employed in some terminology dictionaries. Most of the dictionaries covering the terminology of the social sciences, for example, have surpassed the ordinary term-single definition approach and have opted for the "conceptual sketch" approach (cf. Joubert 1980). Apart from explicit and implicit definitions the following kind of information is also given in every entry: the relationships between concepts, the various theoretical fields in which a concept is used, the methodological and research facets of a concept and references to the relevant literature. Although in the format of the traditional dictionary, these works approach the methodology used in the traditional text book and give, therefore, some indication of what we attempt when we try to convey subject information to our students. A short (unsystematic and incomplete) list of the requirements set for a student will prove the point made above.

Kotzé and Van Wyk (**Basiese konsepte in die politiek**) state it explicitly that a prerequisite for the study of any field of enquiry is that the student must have a command of a concept's definitions, meanings, applications and interrelationships. The concepts themselves must, therefore, be defined "in their context" and their development explained, with the purpose of making a student aware of the operational and functional meaning of these concepts.

According to Weeks (1972) a student must

(1) be made aware of the way a concept is used to describe and analyse phenomena, and the way concepts relate to each other (e.g. that some concepts are dependent on or are an extension of other concepts).
(2) develop a critical/analytical approach, and be able to determine the differences in the meaning and use of concepts in subject literature.

Zito's (cf. Zito 1975) aim with his analysis of basic sociological concepts approaches the ability we expect of our students and lecturers, viz. "to cut through most of the 'jargon' and reveal the fundamental relationships upon which the subject is based".

What is made clear in the aforementioned is that knowledge of the specific terminology of a field is not enough. Students (and

lecturers) need to be taught the underlying theoretical principles according to which terminology systems (as term-concept systems) are shaped and according to which they (have to) function.

In conjunction with the problems students and lecturers experience with terminology (cf. 2) the requirements set out above indicate that knowledge of the following is necessary:

- the relationship common language - special language
- the functions of terminology
- the nature and characteristics of concepts
- the delimitation of concepts, relationships between concepts, systems of concepts
- definitions and other methods to describe concepts and concept systems
- rules for the assignment of terms to concepts
- rules for the creation and translation of terms
- the standardization of terminology
- the documentation and dissemination of terminology.

Students should also be supplied with information on the existing dictionaries and other subject reference tools and their critical awareness of the possible flaws in these works should be sharpened.

Terminology is, however, only one of the linguistic components of a special language. For the purpose of effective special language communication the students also need knowledge of the following:

- the linguistic and non-verbal components of a special language
- stylistic and rhetorical techniques
- the communicative norms governing the above components and techniques.

The skills required of our students for participation in special language communication and the problems they experience in this regard, underline the necessity for formal (systematically structured) teaching of special languages.

There exists no single, correct way of teaching the theory and use of special languages. Various factors will determine the right approach,

but there already exists a body of theoretical and empirical knowledge on which subject specialists of all subjects taught at our university can draw to assist them in working out the most appropriate ways of going about the teaching of special languages (cf. the reference list for examples).

At UNISA concerted efforts are at present being made to improve the general language proficiency of our students. A solution to the language problem does, however, demand an alliance of language specialists and all other subject specialists.

The teaching of special-language communication skills demands high priority as it concerns all our students, the linguistically competent and the linguistically disadvantaged.

Note

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TEACHING AFRIKAANS TO UNISA STUDENTS

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1. Introduction

By way of introduction I would like to point to an inherent peculiarity in most modern language teaching, namely that the object of the teaching is at the same time the very medium whereby it is taught (Corder 1973:278; Cohen 1986:3). This peculiarity also characterises our teaching of Afrikaans at UNISA.

2. Definition of terms

Before discussing objectives and methods, and the limitations of those methods, I would like to briefly define and elaborate on the terms used in the title of this paper: teaching Afrikaans to UNISA students.

Firstly, the term teaching refers essentially to the characteristic UNISA way of teaching, i.e. mainly via the written word and mainly at a distance - more about this later.

Secondly, the term Afrikaans, as you might be well aware, refers to one of the official languages of the Republic of South Africa - the other one being English.

Furthermore, what I have to say about the teaching of Afrikaans will mostly pertain to the course called "Praktiese Afrikaans" (i.e. Practical Afrikaans), which draws by far the largest number of students in the Department of Afrikaans and Dutch (viz. in the order of 1400 this year, compared to 550 in the first year course, 300 in the second year course and 132 in the third year course of Afrikaans and Dutch. Practical Afrikaans is a one-year course, and is mostly taken by students who need only one year of Afrikaans for their degree.

Lastly, the term UNISA students refers in this context to that heterogeneous body of some 1400 students, who could differ in so many respects from one another that in some cases the only common denominator would be that they were registered for the same course.

3. The heterogeneity of our students

A lot has been said about the heterogeneity of our students at UNISA. The following aspects of this heterogeneity are of direct importance to my topic:

We find that our Practical Afrikaans students have registered for the course for diverse reasons: some have registered voluntarily (e.g. housewives or civil servants who might be mother-tongue speakers of Afrikaans, and who wish to brush up their Afrikaans usage; or prospective teachers who are not mother-tongue speakers of Afrikaans, who could use a one-year course in Afrikaans in their degrees, but who find the first year course in Afrikaans & Dutch too daunting); others are more or less forced by their degree requirements or by the stipulations of professional bodies (e.g. our non-Afrikaans speaking Law students will not be allowed to set up practice as lawyers etc. in this country unless they have passed at least a one-year course in Afrikaans).

Not only with respect to the reasons for registering do these students differ from one another, but also as far as cultural background and home language are concerned, and thus also in respect of their command of Afrikaans. In addition, cutting across these cultural and linguistic differences are socio-economic differences, sex and age differences, and differences of scholastic background, study experience and chosen career.

We are thus faced with the task of teaching Afrikaans to a group of adults which is very heterogeneous with respect to cultural and educational background, interests, aptitude, experience and age - from adolescents right through to venerable senior citizens. (I go along with Brändle (1986:19) in that it is not the age difference per se which is the problem, but rather the differing course expectations). In addition, and probably

more importantly, these students vary in their individual command of Afrikaans: from full mother-tongue proficiency to what would amount to a beginner level.

Taking their individual command of Afrikaans as our parameter, we could divide this heterogeneous group of 1400+ roughly into the following four main groups:

Group A: This group would consist of all those students who have a mother-tongue proficiency in Afrikaans; they probably hear and speak it every day.

Group B: In this group one could classify all those students who have had Afrikaans at school as a second language; this covers all our English-speaking South Africans; they might hear Afrikaans regularly in their working or living environment, some might even speak it at times, but they have not attained a mother-tongue command of the language.

Group C: This third group would consist of all those students for whom Afrikaans had been a third language at school; they might hear it daily over the radio or in their working or social environment, or they might only very occasionally be exposed to it in a township environment; whatever the case might be, their own command of Afrikaans is usually relatively poor.

Group D: This group would comprise a small number of students who have never had any formal tuition in Afrikaans; in the areas where they live and/or work they also hardly ever hear Afrikaans spoken.

4. Four different language skills

Before discussing the objectives we set ourselves with this course, I would like to briefly consider the different language skills that are to a greater or lesser extent involved in most language teaching. These skills are: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

These basic skills can be sub-categorised in different ways,

e.g. (a) the natural/primary/audiolingual skills (listening and speaking)
vs. the acquired/secondary/graphic skills (reading and writing);

or (b) the comprehension/receptive skills (listening and reading)
vs. the production/productive skills (speaking and writing).

(Cf. Stern, 1983:350, 506 and Babst 1985:77.)

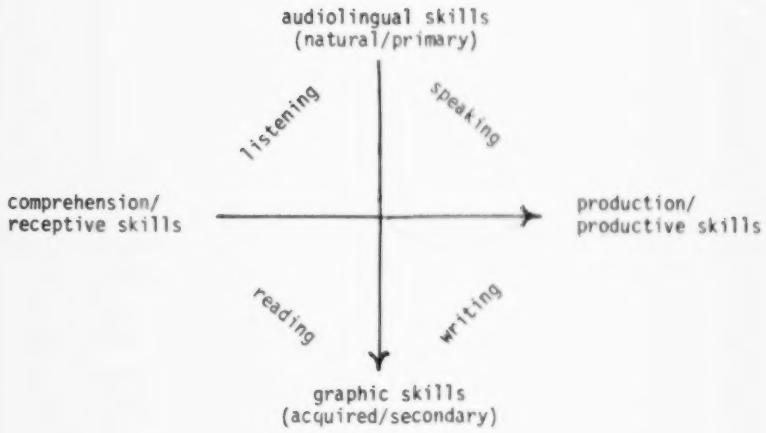

Diagram 1

First of all, I think it is very important that we distinguish between on the one hand the sequence in which the skills would be mastered in the acquisition of one's mother tongue, and on the other hand the sequence involved when learning a second or a third language (Rivers 1981:55).

Most people would probably agree that mother-tongue acquisition would correspond with (a) in Diagram 2, whereas (b) represents one possible sequence in which these skills would be mastered in second or third language learning; another possible way that a second or a third language might be learnt is by mastering first the reading and writing skills and then the listening and speaking skills (see (c) below):

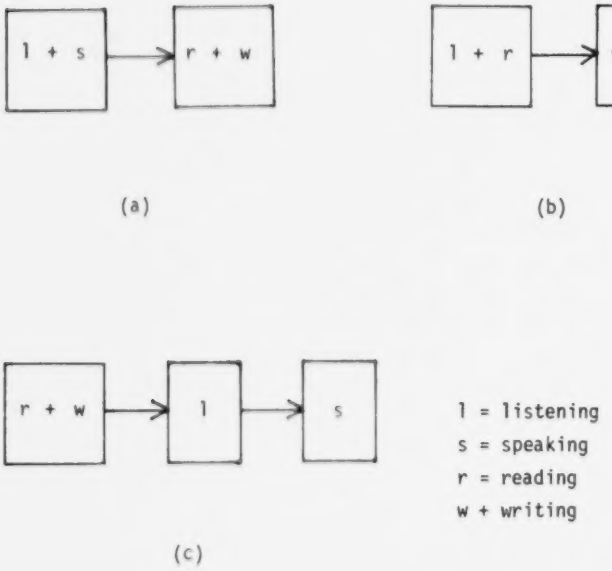

Diagram 2

5. Our objectives

The following considerations to my mind underlie language teaching in general, and as such form the general basis of our objectives:

Like Rivers (1981:21), we firmly believe that those "who are not accurate and fluent in the major language(s) of their society (could be) crippled in their careers by an inability to express themselves".

As explained above, the participants in this course vary very widely as far as their command of Afrikaans is concerned: from full mother-tongue proficiency to the limited proficiency of most second or third language learners, to a small group who barely understand even written Afrikaans. It is therefore reasonable to compare our teaching of Afrikaans in some respects to foreign language teaching (especially as far as groups C and D are concerned). Some of the objectives which apply to foreign language teaching (cf. Rivers 1981:8), would therefore also apply in our case, e.g.

> to develop the students' intellectual powers through the study of a language;
>
> to give students the opportunity to express themselves within another framework, linguistically and culturally;
>
> to bring students to a greater understanding of people of another culture, by giving them a sympathetic insight into the ways of life and ways of thinking of the people who speak the language they are learning;
>
> to provide students with the skills that will enable them to communicate in personal or career contexts with speakers of this other language.

It would have been nice if we could have aimed for a 100% proficiency in Afrikaans for all our students at the end of the year. But we have to be realistic: our specific objectives with this course in Practical Afrikaans are manifold, given, as we have seen, the wide spectrum of students the

course seems to draw every year, and in accordance with the control of the specific skills applicable in each group:

Group A: For this group, who already possess all the basic skills, we aim at mainly refining their secondary skills and their theoretical knowledge of the grammar. The students in this group usually achieve an improvement of their language usage in all respects.

Group B: For these students we aim at basically brushing up all their skills, as well as their knowledge of the grammar; we aim at a better understanding of written and spoken Afrikaans, as well as an improvement in their command of the writing skill; their oral skill we would probably not be able to improve to any noticeable extent -- at least not at present.

Group C: This group has to basically learn all the skills and brush up their knowledge of the grammar; we aim to improve all their skills, but we realise that the speaking skill is not really being addressed; although all the other skills should improve, these students would probably still end up at the end of the year with at best a borderline pass.

Group D: Here we have to start virtually from scratch: beginning with a basic exposure to spoken and written Afrikaans, we move on to cover all the skills as best we can. The best we can hope for with this group would be a reasonable level of reading comprehension, and some proficiency in writing Afrikaans; these students often need to repeat the course once or twice to attain a pass mark.

Diagram 3 is an attempt to illustrate our objectives for the four different groups of students in terms of the four basic language skills:

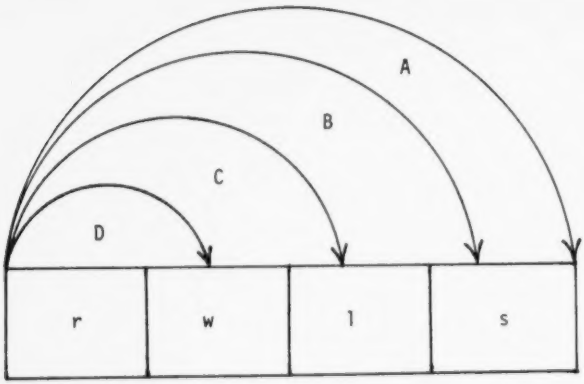

Diagram 3

6. Our basic methods

Our basic method of tuition is the general method used at most distance education institutions, viz. by way of the printed word. This printed word reaches our students in the form of two study guides and various tutorial letters. The one study guide deals mainly with the grammar (e.g. the parts of speech, active/passive voice, negation, tenses, spelling, semantics etc.), and the other covers various aspects of comprehension and composition skills. Add to this their prescribed books (some basic reference works and a collection of Afrikaans short stories by various writers), and one finds that they are practically swamped by written communication - directions, admonitions and explanations - all in Afrikaans.

Our basic method of improving and monitoring their grasp of the subject matter is of course by setting a number of written assignments through the year which are marked by us and provided with written comment before being posted back to the students.

Our basic method of evaluation is a written examination at the end of the year: a three-hour paper with a pass mark of 50%.

7. Problems and limitations

It is clear from the above that, if we were to limit our tuition to these basic methods, the reading and writing proficiency of our students would probably improve, but their listening and speaking skills would not receive their due. Although unconscious linguistic reinforcement does take place to a large extent through reading, we feel that groups B, C and D could benefit from hearing more spoken Afrikaans.

The point of view that distance teaching is in many ways superior to attendance teaching might be true for some subjects, but I do not think it is valid for language teaching. Where the time is so limited (the student has to write exams after only about 10 months of tuition) surely one should aim for maximum exposure.

In any case, some of the theory of the grammar can only be grasped if the student has a clear idea what Afrikaans sounds like: phonetics, stress patterns (and the concomitant spelling rules) and sentence intonation can only really be explained on the actual level of sound.

Also, there is the problem of the physical distance between the participants in the learning process: in order to learn a language, one should ideally be in regular contact with one's tutor. In order to achieve any degree of communicative competence, one should really be exposed to as many situations as possible where the language is actually used in authentic acts of communication (cf. Cohen 1986:4-5 and Stern 1983:411). Our basic methods clearly do not provide this kind of exposure.

Lastly, the written exam can obviously only test a student's reading and writing skills. The listening and speaking skills cannot be tested in such an exam.

8. Solutions and compensations

It has been shown above that by solely relying on the written word in language teaching one impoverishes the tuition. In an attempt then to compensate for the basic shortcomings and limitations of the correspondence teaching of a language, the following components have over the years been added to the overall package that we offer in Practical Afrikaans:

Firstly, to remove the "distance" from "distance education": whenever students visit or phone us, they find themselves in an authentic face-to-face (or voice-to-voice) communication situation in Afrikaans.

But only a limited number of our students do in fact make this type of contact. The vast majority, and sadly most of those from group C and D, are not in a position or do not have the initiative or self-confidence to phone or to come and see us.

Our distance tuition is further supplemented by two sets of discussion classes which are held twice a year in each of four centres, viz. Pretoria, Pietersburg, Durban and Cape Town. These visits take place during April and September, and consist of twelve 40-minute periods each time at each centre. So the students do get a chance to hear Afrikaans as it is actually spoken, and to take part in class discussions of certain problematic aspects of the work. But attendance at these discussion classes proves to be still only a fraction of the total number of students (during 1986 a total of 272 students attended our Practical Afrikaans lectures; that is only 20,7%). It is clear that we do not reach all our students with these lectures.

Our tuition is currently further supplemented by two recorded cassettes, containing a talk on some general orientation, a lecture on phonetics (so that they can actually hear the sounds of Afrikaans), two of their prescribed short stories, and some encouraging remarks for the exams.

Once again, not all the students are in a position or have the facilities to listen to these cassette tapes in their homes, and although such facilities are provided in our library here as well as at our regional offices (i.e. at Durban, Cape Town and Pietersburg), some of the students simply cannot afford the travelling expenses to visit those libraries.

We also have some sets of Linguaphone's Afrikaans language courses on tape which we recommend to our group D students.
These sets of cassettes may be borrowed from the library and worked through for some weeks.

9. Further proposals

However hard we have tried so far to compensate for the intrinsic shortcomings of teaching a language by correspondence, it is clear that the cost factor (for UNISA and the student) is a problem.

Our present methods of tuition still leave much scope for improvement, e.g.

(a) we could send out more cassettes (but all the limitations as spelled out above would still apply);

(b) we could make use of the conference telephone (but the fact that so many students are involved in this course and their travelling problems make this avenue hardly practicable);

(c) we could create and send out video tapes, illustrating Afrikaans in use. Although videos form a very effective tuition tool (a segment of five minutes is equivalent to a lesson or private study session of half an hour or longer (Temple 1986:11)), the cost of production is apparently prohibitive, and we know that the vast majority of our students would not be in a position to benefit from this medium.

(d) I see a more cost-effective answer to our problem in radio: if we are to meet the challenges of the 21st century, we must to my mind seriously investigate the possibility of employing this medium on an organised basis in distance education. One channel could be set aside for continuous educational programmes on various subjects. For Practical Afrikaans we could create audio-lessons to teach our groups C and D (to a lesser extent also group B) some Afrikaans grammar as well as communicative competence in Afrikaans. A radio is much more affordable than a good cassette player or a video machine. In fact, informal surveys seem to confirm that most students either possess a radio or are in a position where they could

easily listen to someone else's. The only drawback would be that the students outside our borders would probably not be able to receive these transmissions, but they usually constitute a very small minority of the total number of students in this course.

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HOW DID DISTANCE EDUCATION IN MUSIC BECOME A SUCCESS AT UNISA?

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Some twenty years after a more musicological approach was adopted at Unisa in 1968, this is an opportune moment to record the considerations which led to its introduction; also to gauge the measure of its success. Above all this congress provides a golden opportunity to record for posterity an appraisal of the more professional approach, which it replaced in that year.

When the Music Department was established in 1958, during the early part of Professor Samuel Pauw's principalship, its first head, Prof. David Roode introduced Bachelor's, Master's and Doctor's degrees, which in many respects followed exactly the same pattern of those at other South African universities. Since the BMus degree as undergraduate degree is obviously the initial degree, which always, therefore, attracts the most students, we shall briefly examine its main characteristics, 'n order to be able to compare it with the present one.

CHARACTERISTICS OF UNISA'S FIRST BMUS DEGREE

One can clearly detect three main components in this original Bachelor of Music degree, namely

- performing proficiency in two instruments (no tuition provided);
- teaching subjects (for which tuition was provided) linked to these two instruments;
- more-academic subjects (for which tuition was also provided).

Although this was a four-year degree, the three major subjects, Harmony, Counterpoint and History of Music only went as far as the third year. The fourth year, clearly regarded as the cherry on the top of the preceding three years, consisted of a number of interesting items intended as the crown on each of these three component-directions listed above.

As splendid crowning achievement, tangible proof of the candidate's performing ability, was the opportunity to perform a movement of a concerto with the SABC orchestra conducted by Jeremy Schulman. Similarly, as

crowning stage in the schooling of the candidate's teaching ability was a second, much more advanced course in the Teaching Methods of both practical options, one of which could be singing. Finally, as crowning achievement of the academic component, as fruit of three years' study in Harmony and Counterpoint, was the submission of an original composition for examination. If accepted, it would take its place on the shelves of Unisa's library, available for everybody to inspect.

Since I had been appointed Head of the Music Department from the first of October 1966 I had the opportunity, also as Senior Lecturer during 1966, to observe all the aspects of this first teletuition BMus at Unisa, until it was eventually phased out by 1970. I could not fail to be impressed by the fortitude and prowess of the concerto-playing fourth-year students, who had only one opportunity to rehearse with the SABC orchestra, namely in the *morning* of the same day of the actual performance in the *evening* in a hall, nearby the Jewish Synagogue in Johannesburg. Jeremy Schulman used to act in a dual capacity not only as conductor, but also as external examiner.

The guidance for the composition assignment was entrusted to a part-time lecturer, Richard Cherry, who was himself an experienced, though rather conservative composer. In regard to the feasibility of teaching composition by teletuition I was able to draw my own, rather sceptical conclusions. It seemed very much a hit or miss affair, determined largely by the innate talent of the particular student for composition, which Mr Cherry was quick to assess for himself. It did not seem to me that his competent tuition was able to shape the final draft of the composition to any great extent. Also, the courses in Orchestration and Orchestral Score Reading taken in the fourth year, did not seem to succeed in equipping the budding composer with the handicraft required for successful composition. Prof. Percival Kirby, as external examiner, nevertheless, enjoyed these student compositions greatly.

The study guides for both courses in Teaching Methods were written either by lecturers within the department, like those for piano by Socrates Paxinos or by external experts, like those for violin by Erwin Broedrich. Admittedly, more study guides were not yet available at this stage, except those for singing.

In spite of the rather poor quality of the contents of the study guides provided for a total of about 20 small courses, including two in Musical Form and one in General Music Knowledge, Unisa did succeed in training graduates, who made their mark later on the South African musical scene. These include (Prof. Dr) Klaus Heimes, Pierre Malan, (Dr) Pieter Roos, Erica Swart, (Dr) Rykie Pienaar and Elizabeth Sivertson. The latter was later to become a president of the South African Society of Music Teachers.

RESHAPING THE CURRICULUM OF THE BMUS DEGREE

One should not place much blame on either the first Head of Department, or even the University, for the poor quality of the study guides, mentioned above, because to provide study material for over twenty different courses, including several options in the case of the two courses in Teaching Methods of an instrument, was an almost impossible task. The Principal, Professor Pauw, was well aware of this shortcoming and, in our first interviews, stressed the necessity for increasing our student numbers. This was crucial, because the number of lecturers was determined directly by the number of students.

The Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Prof. Hendrik (H J J M) van der Merwe, was also well aware of most of the shortcomings of this degree, and provided me with invaluable advice when it came to reshaping the curriculum. He supported me enthusiastically in my desire to see a more academic BMus degree. He pointed out that examining all the students annually in their performance of both instruments was an unnecessary wastage of manpower, because the University possessed its own efficient department of Music Examinations, to whom this task could be entrusted. (At that time he was also Chairman of Unisa's Committee for Music Examinations, thus well acquainted with the details of both Performer's and Teacher's licentiates.)

We decided that the professional component could be covered by either of these Licentiates of Unisa. Tuition for the degree would thus be confined to only fourteen academic courses organised according to *three* major subjects (namely, Harmony *and* Counterpoint, History of Music, Musical Form) in which there would be four courses each. The two remaining courses would be General Music Knowledge and a completely new course, Music Bibliography.

THE TWO COMPONENTS OF UNISA'S BACHELOR OF MUSICOLOGY DEGREE

Instead of three components, the new Bachelor of Musicology degree would henceforth consist of only two, namely 14 academic courses, (for which tuition would be provided) plus a licentiate (for which the student would have to find private tuition). For many years a performer's licentiate was acceptable, therefore, if supplemented by a departmental examination in teaching methods of this instrument or singing. Later we decided to drop the latter examination in favour of an administratively easier arrangement, whereby a teaching endorsement would be provided solely for the *teacher's* licentiate on the BMus degree certificate. Yet a *performer's* licentiate, also of the Royal Schools or Trinity College, would entitle the graduate to a BMus degree certificate without such an endorsement.

SUCCESS FOLLOWS INITIAL SCEPTICISM

Because a BMus degree has always been a recognized teaching or performing qualification in the Republic, it would have been unwise to drop practical music from Unisa's musicology degree altogether, because then the various education departments would certainly have withdrawn their recognition for salary purposes. Certainly the music profession, in the beginning years, viewed the new approach with a considerable amount of suspicion. So strong was this suspicion that Unisa was lowering practical and professional standards of the BMus at first that, by implication, it seemed singled out for castigation in a memorandum submitted one year later (1969) to a State Commission of Enquiry into Universities. The Executive Committee of the South African Society of Music Teachers, no less, submitted that: "there is a growing tendency in the universities of the Republic to limit the BMus ... almost completely to the musicological (theoretical academic) concept, while still calling the degree BMus.", thereby causing a "lowering of practical and professional standards for BMus". Soon it became clear, however, that Unisa students did not share this unfounded suspicion, when they began to enrol for the new B Musicology degree in increasingly greater numbers. Some ten years later, consequently, the number of enrolments had increased dramatically to pass the 200 mark. This constituted a trebling of the maximum number that the old approach had been able to attract in the *eleven* years of its existence.

This phenomenal increase in student numbers, which led to a corresponding increase in the number of lecturers, no doubt also allayed the suspicions of the most distrustful members of the music profession. Since many of these already possessed a Unisa or an other acceptable licentiate, they soon discovered in Unisa's new degree an advantageous opportunity to improve their own qualifications. As a further advantage teletuition enabled them to continue earning their living as music teachers without any interruption. As word spread that Unisa's teletuition BMus was a music degree acceptable to the education departments for salary purposes and also maintaining the highest academic standards, the South African music teacher began to regard not only this degree, but also Unisa's postgraduate degrees with great respect and affection. One way of assessing the success of the new musicological approach, therefore, is to examine the membership list of this society and to note how many members possess Unisa BMus or higher musicology degrees.

THE GRADUAL CONSOLIDATION OF THE NEW APPROACH

The first major task facing the department, once the new approach had been sanctioned by Senate, was the writing from scratch of study guides for the five new courses, namely Harmony and Counterpoint IV, History of Music IV, Music Bibliography, Musical Form III and IV. In addition the study guides for the existing, remaining courses had gradually to be improved, because their musicological quality left much to be desired. But the question remained as to how to do this.

The subsequent selection committees, chaired by Prof. Pauw, fortunately appointed a number of Junior Lecturers, including four who were later to make their mark on the South African academic scene. These were: Bertha Hamman, Elza Vermeulen, Julia van Leeuwen and Rudolf van den Berg. They were joined at a later stage by George King and Mary Rörich, even later by Marianne Becker. Not one possessed a Master's degree at this stage. Yet the success that was gradually achieved in increasing student numbers was due to the quality of the study guides that they produced under the guidance of the Head of Department. Their task was greatly facilitated by the generous allocation of funds for the purchase of new library books and records. Fortunately, too, there were available, at that stage, a number

of excellent American textbooks written by reputable musicologists, at very reasonable prices. Above all, there gradually arose within the department an excellent *esprit de corps*, contributed to by an experienced Senior Lecturer from the University of the Free State, Derik van der Merwe and by a lecturer who had studied at the Musikhochschule in Vienna, Socrates Paxinos, later to become Head of the Music Department at the University of Pretoria.

The difference in approach between "music and musicology" manifested itself chiefly in the position in the study material given to historical and theoretical anthologies of music, to which constant reference was made. Keyboard harmony became an integral part of each Harmony and Counterpoint course, enabling the student to read, play at the keyboard and thus to grasp analytically, these scores. Music cassettes provided discussions by lecturers of significant extracts realized in sound and were distributed to students as part of the study packet for most courses in the three major subjects. From modest beginnings during Prof. Pauw's principalship this aspect of our tuition developed rapidly to considerable sophistication under his successor, Prof. Theo van Wijk.

THE INTRODUCTION OF AN HONOURS DEGREE

Gradually we began to realize that 12 courses would be a more appropriate number rather than 14 for a four-year degree, in relation to the number of courses for a three-year BA degree, once this came to stabilize at Unisa at 10. We decided to reduce the number of Musical Form courses from four to two. The two Form courses, which were excised, became the nucleus of a not unattractive honours degree. This new degree, in turn, became the gateway to the Master's and Doctor's degrees, which soon began to have an impact on the South African musical scene. To these two Form papers were added two others in Harmonic Analysis and Music Bibliography, plus a third in the History of Music before 1600, which were to provide the future researcher in Musicology with a useful schooling in the advanced musicological approach required for successful research. Amongst the almost immediate spinoffs of this new degree was a great increase in the number of students completing the Master's and Doctor's degrees, which until then, had been most sparse.

THE INFLUENCE OF ACCESSIBLE MASTER'S AND DOCTOR'S DEGREES ON THE CALIBRE OF STAFF

While the old approach had allowed for Master's and Doctor's degrees, also in composition, the new approach allowed solely for competence in musicological research. This competence could be gradually attained by steady *progression* through four years of study in two major subjects of the Bachelor's degree leading to a more advanced level in the Honour's degree, before the Master's study eventually led to the Doctor's degree. It is not so much that Unisa has attracted a large number of doctoral graduates — one of the conclusions reached by Dr Paxinos[11] in a recent article on postgraduate music study in the Republic — but that carefully-planned curricula and degree structures made even a Doctor's degree in Musicology more accessible to talented students. This fact allowed several members of staff in time to gain Unisa DMus degrees, a contributory factor to the high calibre of staff now to be found in this department. Needless to say, this is a state of affairs conducive to the creation of effective study guides, upon which successful teletuition depends to a large extent.

THE OPPORTUNITIES PROVIDED FOR PUBLICATION IN AN OWN DEPARTMENTAL MAGAZINE

The new principal, Prof. van Wijk had already encouraged us to found our own departmental magazine, *Ars Nova*, while he was Dean of the Arts Faculty. Volume 18 appeared towards the end of last year. This magazine proved to be invaluable to lecturers and promising postgraduate students, by providing the opportunity to publish research articles which were widely read. It gradually achieved the reputation of being a scholarly magazine and has, until now, remained the only one to be published by a South African music department for any length of time.

THE CONTRIBUTION TO MUSICAL TERMINOLOGY IN AFRIKAANS

For many years — since about 1970 — this department has been doing its own translation of study material into Afrikaans. In the beginning we did not know whether the correct Afrikaans term for the English term "cadence" was "kadans" or "kadens", or whether "Musicology" should be translated as "musiekwetenskap" or "musikologie". Today everybody uses the words

"kadens" and "musiekwetenskap", but few are aware of the dilemmas we faced in those early years.

HOW DOES ONE TEACH MUSIC SUCCESSFULLY BY TELETUITION?

From the foregoing a number of deductions can be made as to how successful teletuition in music was achieved at Unisa. A comparison of the old, mainly unsuccessful approach, with the new, more successful one, underlines the inherent advantage enjoyed by musicology over *practical* music, whether it be performing or composition, when taught by teletuition. The *method* of teaching practical music, which constituted this professional component of both the old and new approaches, was sidestepped in the latter by requiring a teacher's licentiate for the teaching endorsement, without offering teletuition in it. Such teaching of practical *methods* (as the old approach demonstrated), *can* be done with limited success by teletuition, however, but makes great demands on manpower, since there is such a wide variety of instruments and singing, which need to be covered. While teletuition can achieve limited success in regard to the *Teaching Methods* of practical instruments, singing or composition, it fails miserably as *mode* of teaching for the latter.

If one confines teletuition to courses, where a musicological approach can be applied, one finds that a number of factors contribute to its success or otherwise:

- the quality of the study packet, especially the study guides, must be high;
- at the early stages of a teletuition department Junior Lecturers can be entrusted to the writing of study guides under the supervision of an experienced musicologist;
- the curriculum of the BMus degree should be structured so that *progression* in the major subjects takes place steadily;
- this progression should continue step-for-step in the Honours, Master's and Doctor's degrees;
- should such progression be present, it is undoubtedly possible, in a developing country like the Republic, to build up a department whose lecturers are of high calibre;

- both study material and lecturers of high calibre give a teletuition music department a good reputation; this in turn attracts students, allowing the department to grow in size and influence;
- the present system employed at Unisa, whereby syllabus and curriculum changes are considered annually, but perhaps more important, whereby study guides may be revised every three years, enables a teletuition music department to remain abreast of advances in the field of musicology; it also enables it to adapt to the changing needs of the society it serves.

ENDNOTE

1) S. Paxinos, "Trends in South African Musicology" in *South African Journal of Musicology*, volume 5/1, Pretoria: Musicological Society of South Africa, August 1985, p. 45.

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DISTANCE TEACHING WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

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African Languages

1. HISTORICAL SURVEY

At the establishment of the external section of the old Federal University of South Africa, a Department of Bantu Studies was instituted. This department included Bantu Languages, Anthropology and what was then called Native Administration. The first head of the Department of Bantu Studies was Prof C J Coertze who was succeeded by Prof E F Potgieter.

In the late sixties the original Department of Bantu Studies developed into a Sub-faculty of African Studies with separate departments. Prof D Ziervogel was the first head of the Department of Bantu Languages. Our present Head, Prof J A Louw proposed the change of name to the Department of African Languages for the reason that in our Honours Course we also deal with Non-Bantu languages.

From four members of staff our Department has grown to 49 members in the teaching staff and 5 secretaries. Initially we only had some 300 students. Now we have some 6000.

Mainly because of the ever increasing number of Black Matriculants, we foresee that our department will remain growing at a faster rate than the rest of the university. In these troublesome times with economic problems more students and parents of students will favour Unisa as a university. This in itself will also benefit our growth. It must however be mentioned that quite a number of our members of staff would favour a slower growth rate.

Prof Louw presently envisages the institution of a Research Institute under the auspices of our Department. The aim of such a body would be to administer and initiate research on salient and more esoteric aspects of Bantu languages. This is very important if one considers the rate at which the uncontaminated dialects are disappearing. Information of this nature should at all costs be preserved for future generations.

2. PRE-GRADUATE STUDENT COMPOSITION AND SYLLABUS

The majority of our students i.e. ninety two percent are Black mother tongue speakers and ninety nine percent of them take their mother tongue as a subject for degree purposes. These languages are Zulu, Xhosa, Tsonga, Venda, Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho and Tswana. The one percent that has been excluded applies to students whose home language or home dialect is not taught at Unisa for example Ndebele and Swazi speakers who will then take Zulu as a subject. The eight percent non-mother tongue speakers in their turn are mainly Whites. Percentage wise our department has the highest Black student ratio in the University.

To any educationist it should be clear that our department has a teaching problem. How does one accommodate mother tongue and non-mother tongue speakers within the same syllabus of a language department. To some extent we have made an attempt to achieve this in the past but have since found that it was not feasible. On rethinking the problem we ended up with a syllabus consisting of general papers and specialised papers. The specialised papers, we found, could be tailored to the initial and eventual needs of the two categories of students, viz mother tongue and non-mother tongue speakers. As we have just completed the implementation of the new syllabus it is too soon to express an opinion on the merits or demerits of our syllabus revision.

3. CONTENT OF OUR TEACHING MATERIAL AT PRE-GRADUATE LEVEL

Great care is taken in the preparation and formulation of teaching material. Lecturers are familiar with the deluge of enquiries spawned by a badly written study guide or tutorial letter. The best way to avoid this is to imagine oneself in the position of the student out there on his own. Experience teaches one to anticipate problems that might arise if study material is presented in a less than lucid style. Taken as a whole, the scope and contents of the teaching material compares favourably with

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that of residential universities.

In Southern Africa one finds that language departments in general tend to concentrate on literature. This applies to a lesser extent in the Bantu languages. In our case we are convinced that we have achieved a fair balance between linguistics and literature. Equal emphasis on both these disciplines is essential especially in view of the fact that a fair number of our students are teachers involved in teaching the vernaculars. We are therefore performing a community service. We are not only developing insight and language competence of mother tongue speakers, but we are also involved in the cross-cultural bonding of South Africans. In order to facilitate this bonding, teaching material has been developed in some of the languages to enhance the language acquisition of non-mother tongue speakers. This aspect of language acquisition, which actually lies within the responsibility of our white secondary schools, deserves more attention within our department.

4. THE MEDIUM OF TUITION AT PRE-GRADUATE LEVEL

Like all teachers of subjects taught by means of distance teaching we know that effective communication between teacher and student and student and teaching material is of the utmost importance. With our two main categories of students viz Black and White we find that each group has its own communication problems. The Blacks experience problems in handling the linguistic component of our teaching material mainly because it is taught and examined through the medium of English - which to them remains a second language.

The question is how do we accommodate these students? At present we adopt a lenient attitude in which we turn a blind eye to minor problems of English usage. In addition we consciously use English which will not complicate matters for our students. It might be asked: why not teach linguistics through the medium of the vernaculars? The answer is simple. Nearly all linguistic text books are written in English and at the post-graduate level, where a high degree of specialization is expected of lecturers, it is

more convenient to use English as a medium of tuition when lecturing to students who might be speakers of any of the seven languages that we teach. The mother tongue students however have a distinct advantage when it comes to literature where both the theory, as presented in the study guides and the literary works themselves, are in the vernacular. Besides study guides students are expected to consult text books in English. Despite the fact that the major part of their literary studies and examinations are conducted through the mother tongue, our Black colleagues are not completely satisfied that the students have made the maximum use of what is offered to them. Perhaps we should not fret because students will be students.

We can now briefly look at the distance teaching problems of Whites. It has been found that they tend to master the linguistic sections with greater ease. To them the facts might be new but the medium of tuition poses a lesser problem during study and in the eventual examination. We have found that the literature poses a formidable problem for non-mother tongue speakers, because they have not acquired fluency in the vernacular of their choice. This is an enormous stumbling block in sections of their syllabus which expects a fair amount of language competence.

5. DISTANCE TEACHING AT PRE-GRADUATE LEVEL

Critics of distance teaching would in principle attack the teaching of languages by this method since it is within this discipline that regular contact with students is essential. But given the student composition of ninety two percent mother tongue speakers, this argument falls away. Only a small percentage of our students require practical components in language learning. To accommodate this aspect we have taped components as parts of our introductory or Special Course.

Communication between teacher and student is in the main achieved by means of our study guides as well as tutorial letters which are supplied to our students at registration and at various stages of the academic year.

Individual contact is achieved by means of telephonic enquiries or personal visits by students.

By far the greatest number of students are reached personally during the Discussion Classes conducted countrywide twice a year. During these Discussion Classes we initially give guidelines on how to approach the teaching material. Invariably it has been found that there are students who are intimidated by the volume of work that they have to handle. Afterwards during the Discussion Classes there is the tendency to concentrate on aspects of the teaching material that individuals or groups find difficult to handle. Both students and lecturers are convinced that this form of contact makes distance teaching feasible.

Students also make contact by submitting two assignments per paper at scheduled dates and in the Sotho languages the lecturers respond by returning the assignments with their comments. Assignments on both linguistics and literature are generally followed by a commentary highlighting what the lecturer expected and touching on common problems observed in the course of marking.

The implementation of taped assignments is considered by some lecturers especially in the case of the language acquisition papers.

6. POST-GRADUATE TEACHING

Only students with at least sixty percent in the final pre-graduate course qualify for admittance to our Honours Course. Students with a generally weak academic record are not considered.

The thirteen papers for Honours are divided into linguistics and literature thus enabling students to specialise in either of these disciplines. Students, who are doing part time study are discouraged to take more than two papers per year. The full course consists of four papers and an article in which they have to display competence in handling bibliographical references as well as the systematic and logical presentation of their data.

Contact is kept by means of Discussion Classes twice a year as well as the four compulsory assignments, letters and telephonic communication.

The formidable prices of books force us to be conservative when prescribing text books. Another inhibiting factor is the fact that very few books published overseas meet our requirements. There is a tendency to rely more on articles published in language and literary journals. We also hope to counter this problem by writing study guides for Honours - thus replacing the tutorial letters of the past.

A pass mark of at least sixty percent at Honours level is required to continue with a Masters Degree. The variation in standards at other South African Universities create problems in applying rules for the admission of students. The admission of a student with an inflated academic record could mean the loss of many academic man hours which is definitely not conducive to the cost productive application of time in our field.

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PARTICIPANT OR STUDENT : THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE

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1. INTRODUCTION

The School of Business Leadership (SBL) is now twenty-two years old. It offers a variety of programmes and seminars aimed at the development of management skills and ability for people with business experience who feel a need to improve their management acumen.

The method of distance education as offered by the SBL rests on the integration of the following features: theoretical tuition by means of textbooks, readers and study guides; study groups which enrolled students must join and in which they learn from each other; study schools and centre meetings where direct contact with lecturers is established; and an integrated programme of individual and group assignments. The theoretical tuition does not differ in principle from similar methods of teletuition for that matter. However, the other aspects do present some unique features which form the main theme of this paper. In particular the active participation of students in the formalized study groups will be stressed. It is this participation which has led the SBL to call people enrolled for its programmes participants and not students. This is not merely a play with words, but reflects the whole attitude at the SBL that both lecturers and students are participating in an integrated joint programme of management development of mutual benefit to all concerned.

2. PROGRAMMES

As a background to the paper the major programmes presented by the SBL are introduced.

- **The Management Development Programme (MDP)** is a one year programme which focuses on the functional areas of management. Matriculation is the minimum academic qualification, but at least three years appropriate experience is required. The typical participant on the programme is a person identified by his/her organisation as having management potential in which it is willing to invest time and money. He or she is on average 35 years old and already involved in managerial decision-making. Many entrants to the programme have for many years not done any formal studying and have to adapt to the strict regimen enforced by such a programme. The MDP is the only programme offered by the SBL which allows for a certain degree of specialization and participants can elect to do the programme in general management, manpower management, administration and finance, marketing management, project management or mining industry. Two special MDP programmes are run for large organisations in the RSA.

- **The Advanced Executive Programme (AEP)** is a fifteen month programme which focuses on individuals who are either already in senior general management or are being groomed to enter senior general management in the near future. Although matriculation is the minimum academic qualification, most are university graduates. They must have at least ten years' appropriate experience. The typical entrant is a dynamic high-potential individual between 30 and 45 years old with an identified career in senior management in their organisations. They are sponsored by their organisations and individual enrolments are rare.

- **The Master of Business Leadership (MBL)** was called the flagship course of the SBL in the Supplement to the Financial Mail of April 11, 1986, devoted to the SBL. And indeed it is the oldest and best known of its programmes. It is a four year programme in general management. Like the MDP, at least three years' appropriate experience is required, but it is not strange to find more mature participants with experience exceeding twenty years on the programme. However, the average age of participants entering the programme is only 27 due to a large number joining as soon as

they qualify for admission. As can be expected, the typical MBL participant is a person who pays for his or her own tuition, is in business or a profession and has explicit ambitions to move into management if not already in such a position. A Baccalaureus-degree is a minimum academic requirement for admission, but the degree itself or its content is not specified. Hence entrants to the programme have academic background, ranging from professional qualifications in accounting, engineering, law, medicine and theology to degrees in arts, science and commerce. The dominant first qualifications are B.Com/B.Compt and B Sc (Eng).

The above variety in academic background of entrants to the programme causes two major adaptations to the typical post-graduate studies building on a first degree in the same subject. Firstly, no topic-specific background knowledge can be assumed and secondly, time has to be devoted to develop a base of shared knowledge which can serve as a foundation for the advanced tuition in management studies which is to follow. This foundation is laid in the first year of tuition which in this sense can be seen as a preparatory year.

The actual management training begins in the second year when the various functions of management are studied. The emphasis is now on the different sectors of an organization and appropriate management techniques and methods.

In the third year the SBL builds further on this foundation but with the focus on the SBL's academic specialization: strategy formulation and implementation. This includes aspects such as planning and designing the internal organization, analysing the internal and external factors which affect performance, and devising and implementing plans to cope with or take advantage of these factors.

Holders of the degree of Master of Business Leadership must be able to apply acquired knowledge in practice and to conduct scientifically sound independent investigations into aspects of

concern. Development of these skills form the basis of the fourth year.

3. THE STUDY GROUP CONCEPT

There is nothing revolutionary about the introduction of study groups. Virtually all business schools recognise that management today is in many respects a team effort. All appreciate that the synergistic effect stemming from interactive decision-making by interdisciplinary groups can, if properly managed, greatly enhance the quality of decisions. What the SBL did do however was to make the study group activities such an important feature of its tuition programme that in a survey among final year participants in 1986, 46% of the anonymous questionnaires returned (17 out of 37) listed the group method as the major strength of the MBL-programme. As one put it: "I found that the main strength was definitely in the group participation. The MBL gave me many useful tools to apply, but the group interaction taught me more. After all, business is about people". This feature comes a long way and in September 1969 we read that at a banquet in honour of the first MBL graduandi, the speaker on behalf of the graduandi expressed his appreciation for the "success of study groups as tuition method".[1]

3.1 Formation

An explicity stated admission requirement for any participant is that it must be able to join a study group of between five and ten participants. Practice has taught that at least during the first two years of the MBL, the work load becomes too much for less than five to handle whereas in the case of more than ten individuals some can "disappear" in the group and become mere passengers.

Once the registration for a particular programme closes, it is the task of the SBL administrative staff together with the appropriate academic associate director to form the study groups. Geographic location is naturally a major consideration in group forming as these groups typically meet once a week, but another important consideration is to have a fair mixture of academic background in the group. Cross fertilization by people with different educational backgrounds is a distinctive feature of the groups.

Some participants have to travel great distances to group meetings and cases of a person travelling 200 km to a meeting and back once a week are not unheard of.

When the groups are formed they are visited by a team consisting of a senior academic and a senior administrative member of the SBL staff. The purpose is to structure the group and instruct its members in academic and administrative procedures. Particular attention is given to the functioning and responsibilities of the study groups to get them functioning as quickly as possible. These meetings are concluded by the election of a study group leader.

3.2 Study group leader

The study group leader is responsible for the smooth functioning of the study group. He/she is also the liaison person between the group and the SBL. His/her responsibilities include watching over the participation of individuals in group activities being supportive where enthusiasm starts to flag, or channeling help where a member runs into difficulties with particular subjects. During each study school the responsible associate directors (academic and administrative) have a finger lunch with the study group leaders. This is to create an opportunity to air problems and to iron out difficulties before they become insurmountable. This ensures that the SBL can keep in touch with problems as they arise and that participants have a direct channel to persons directly in charge of the programme.

3.3 Internal tuition

Besides recognition of the value of rubbing shoulders for four years (in the case of the MBL) with people from other disciplines there is a very specific academic reason for the heterogeneous backgrounds in a study groups. Due to the fact that no specific first degree is required for the MBL, no lecturer can assume any subject specific initial background in the initial contact with a new group. Hence tuition must start from first principles, but obviously have to build rapidly from there. This is where a person with prior background in that particular subject can be of great value in helping his/her fellow group members. Particularly it is not strange for groups to

have formal sessions in say accounting where a group member who is a chartered accountant, lecture to the group only to join the audience at a later stage when say an engineer holds forth on business statistics. Where a particular discipline is lacking, a group typically will identify one or more members with the required aptitude and interest to put additional effort in that subject material to help their fellow group members.

Also group members support each other in the more mundane things like integrating and summarising study material. Everybody has to cover all study material but it does help to receive it already in half digested form.

However, it is in the field of integrating theory with practice that the study group often proves to be of even greater value. Orpen[2] lists a number of ways in which this integration can be fostered. First, in his list, is the statement that "with course members who have management experience ... the member will inevitably be testing what the teacher has to say against his own experiences". That is why the appropriate experience as a prerequisite to admission is so important. Groups can share experiences and thus learn from each other. Management education is very much an applied subject and must be taught as such. This is also achieved by means of the group assignments.

3.4 Group assignments

Besides individual assignments, there are formal group assignments where each group must send in their own joint effort to be assessed as such.

The twenty-two years of experience at the SBL where many of today's lecturers also completed their MBL has taught how such group tasks can best be handled. For each group assignment a chairperson and secretary are nominated and discussions are held in the form of formal business meetings. The educational value of this procedure for management development is obvious. Groups are recommended to create at least three opportunities for discussing a particular assignment. The first one is an opportunity for general discussion

on how the task should be handled and identifying information gaps. The task of obtaining the necessary information is formally assigned to particular group members. In the second discussion period, the answer can be structured. Thereafter the chairperson and secretary will prepare a draft answer which will be discussed and finalized at the last session.

From the above it can be seen that at times one group session can involve discussion of three assignments at various stages of development besides formal lectures and informal discussions around theoretical work. Thus, although not formally prescribed study groups typically find it necessary to convene at least once a week. It also gives rise to comments often heard from alumni of the SBL that what they miss most is the weekly intellectually stimulating discussions. During four years of MBL-studies, friendships are often struck that last well past the formal study period. This augers well for the last group benefit to be mentioned here.

3.5 Motivational support

Distance education can at best often be very lonely. When pressure from work, social life and other problems build up enthusiasm for the studies can at times flag. This is where the support from the rest of the group really comes into its own and many an alumnus can state that this support at times was the only thing that kept him/her going. You do not want to leave your group in the lurch!

3.6 Study group problems

Unfortunately the system of study groups does create problems too.

Persons who are excellent material for being participants cannot be accommodated because there is no study group to accommodate them in their vicinity. Worse still is where a person fails one year and there is no group "behind" to accommodate him/her. It has happened that a person had to wait one or more years before he can proceed with his studies. It has also happened that in the final years of study the requirement of at least five pesons to a group had to be waived because a group has dropped below that number and there is no other group with which they can merge.

On rare occasions the chemistry of a group just will not work and the SBL has to step in where a clash of personalities or other problems threaten the existence of a group as an entity. This however rarely occurs and does not offset the considerable advantages recognised in the studygroup method. Formal lectures on group dynamics given by knowledgeable lecturers also help to offset this potential problem.

4. STUDY SCHOOLS AND CENTRE MEETINGS

Dr Georg Marais, when he was still director of the SBL, summarised the management training for the MBL as "a combination of correspondence training and localized or classroom training. It can best be described as decentralized classroom teaching attained through a system of study groups or learning cells formed in different locations, and linked by correspondence and regular study schools at a central location"[3] In fact, besides study groups, the use of "compulsory vacation schools" or study schools as they are now called, appears as an essential feature of the tuition methods to be used right from the very first memorandum on the MBL in 1964.[4] These study schools form the most important direct link between participants and lecturers. Formal lectures, sometimes by guest lecturers and class analysis of case studies take place. Here participants have an opportunity of getting to know their lecturers and to ascertain what is considered to be important.

During a study school each lecturer has his or her alotted number of periods to cover a certain amount of tutorial matter. Hence although inter-action in the class is encouraged, it must necessarily be rather limited. This is not the case during centre meetings. Study groups in close proximity to each other are combined in centres, each centre not to exceed approximately thirty participants in number. Lecturers in all different courses visit each centre once during the year. During these visits which, depending on the course and year of study, may last from an evening to a whole day, the lecturer gives particular attention to problem areas and case studies. These visits provide a golden opportunity for participants to discuss individual problems with the lecturers concerned and foster closer contact with the SBL. Attendance by participants is compulsory.

It is interesting to note that a translation of the number of contact hours spent by lecturers in study schools and centre meetings to forty minute periods per week shows for many a lecture load a comparable with their counterparts at residential universities.

5. CASE STUDIES AND PROJECTS

Although the features of the tuition process rather than the content is the topic of this paper, it is important to mention the use of case studies in conclusion. Orpen[5] makes out a convincing case for the use of case studies. He states that "it is only if students not only learn the relevant ideas or concepts, but also attempt to employ or use them in various contexts, that they will develop those skills of diagnosis and application that are the hallmark of the successful manager" This is the context in which the SBL utilizes case studies, not so much as a vehicle to discover "universal truths" but to consolidate theoretical inputs by embedding them in real life practical situations. In particular it has proven to be an extremely useful vehicle to transcend the boundaries of academic disciplines. Case studies also often form the content of group assignments. It is gratifying to see how a group gets much more out of such a task than was originally intended by the compiler of the case study.

In spite of the fact that case studies are mostly distilled from real life situations, they still have a certain degree of artificiality. This is because all the facts and figures pertaining to the case are given and sometimes in a way to highlight a specific aspect. To quote Orpen[2] again "a much more direct way of testing and modifying generalizations - the essence of research - is for students to do projects in on-going business situations". The emphasis in the MBL - almost by definition - is on business leadership and hence the study group activities culminate in the fourth year in the development of strategic guide lines for a real life organisation. First an internal appraisal and then an external appraisal of the organisation is done by the study group in co-operation with the management of the organisation before the guidelines are structured. Many participants consider this to be the highlight of the MBL programme.

CONCLUSION

Traditionally the method of distance education consisted of prescribed written material on which a student is examined at the end of the programme. The School of Business Leadership has expanded this into an integrated process of management development, certain distinctive features of which have been described here. For the present it can be said that this method has stood the test of time. However, there can never be time for complacency and fresh viewpoints, technological developments and changing needs present new opportunities and challenges which must be continuously considered and incorporated in the process where appropriate.

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ECONOMICS IN THE DISTANCE-TEACHING SITUATION: PROBLEMS AND APPROACHES

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PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to indicate certain of the particular problems experienced in teaching Economics at UNISA as well as some of the ways in which these problems are currently being addressed.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Our basic problem is how to teach a topical, often controversial, subject to large numbers of students (see Table 1) in the distance-teaching situation. Although Economics is an established science with a definite and unique analytical core (which is perhaps more than can be said of certain other subjects) it is also a hotly debated subject in which the data and particular strands of thought can quickly become obsolete. As a social science it also contains significant ideological elements and controversies which are particularly difficult to bring across, given the constraints of the distance-teaching environment.

TABLE 1: UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT REGISTRATION, 1986

Economics I	7138
Economics II	2937
Economics III	891
Economic History	181
Applied Economics II	298
Applied Economics III	78
	11523

Upon joining UNISA I was immediately struck (and bothered) by the particularly rigorous approach to the choice and presentation of the prescribed material. Having taught at a residential university and subsequently being involved in economic policymaking, I naturally preferred to highlight issues and controversies and to broaden the students' outlook, whenever possible. I soon realised, however, that there is no real alternative, especially in the first two courses. Moreover, after three years of teaching introductory economic theory, I have reached the conclusion that there are ways and means of coping with most of the problems in Economics I and II, which are traditionally the courses in which the student is familiarised with the basic analytical tools.

However, at the Honours level there are seemingly insurmountable problems, especially in view of the large student numbers and the somewhat precarious staff situation. In the major Honours papers the initial student registration (± 130) exceeds the number of third-year Economics students at most other South African universities. These students invariably come from various different backgrounds, regions and even countries. Moreover, anyone who has majored in Economics at any South African university is unconditionally accepted as an honours student. Along with the typical constraints of distance-teaching, I find it particularly difficult to do justice to the Honours course, which constitutes the student's first specialization in Economics and during which he is supposed to really come to grips with his subject. Of course, these problems are magnified by the fact that I am currently responsible for a major Economics II paper as well as for the two major Honours papers (i.e. along with masters, doctoral and other commitments). But that is roughly par for the course as far as the Economics Department is concerned.

I do not wish to imply that the current situation in the Honours courses cannot be improved. There are many possible avenues that can be pursued (even given the current staff situation), but time and space do not permit a detailed examination of these problems and possible solutions. Suffice it to say that the Honours course in Economics is the least satisfactory and the least suited to the distance-teaching situation, given the large and unconditional enrolment and the nature of our subject.

At the Masters and PhD levels there are no particular problems. On the contrary, UNISA is as well (if not better) equipped for advanced research in Economics as any other South African university.

I now turn to some of the particular aspects of our work at UNISA, concentrating on the undergraduate courses.

THE NEED FOR TEACHING TEAMS

As at most other South African universities the large enrolment for the first- and second-year courses in Economics necessitates the use of teaching teams. In our case these teams can be fairly large (e.g. as many as 10 to 12 lecturers in Economics I). A major disadvantage of this system is that the course leader is forced to spend much of his time and effort organising and supervising the work of the other members of the team (including a lot of editing, in Afrikaans and English). On the other hand the junior members benefit from the guidance and training they receive (in various aspects of their work).

Another major potential disadvantage of the system is that it can stifle enthusiasm and initiative. Lecturers at UNISA

are (on average) subject to far fewer immediate challenges and less discipline than their counterparts at residential universities. They also have far less scope for initiative and experimentation. The UNISA system is efficient but also very rigid. There is always a real danger that lecturers (especially the younger ones) can become frustrated. But I remain convinced that the really keen and energetic lecturer will always create scope for applying his or her own initiative. Unfortunately, however, they are usually the exceptions to the rule and since UNISA lecturers are subject to fewer direct disciplines (e.g. because they do not have to face large, and critical, classes every day) a lot of effort and supervision is required to keep the less enthusiastic, less diligent and the inexperienced team members on their toes.

PRESCRIBED MATERIAL

The UNISA rules concerning prescribed books constitute a significant constraint, especially at the undergraduate level. In most courses only one book is allowed and it has to be prescribed almost a year in advance - and for a three-year period at that. Moreover, our large student numbers preclude the effective use of supplementary, recommended reading lists.

In our case it is particularly important to choose a prescribed book that is clear, concise and relevant, but which also steers away from controversial issues (or which addresses them in separate chapters). At residential universities lecturers in Economics often prefer an issue-orientated approach. But given the complex nature of the subject, the large number of basic tools which have to be mastered and the lack of personal contact, we have no choice

but to opt for a fairly rigorous approach and have to choose appropriate prescribed books. In Economics it is also important to have South African texts, as far as possible. In Economics I and II the latter requirements has fortunately been met in most of the papers. We have, for example, recently adapted a well-known international text to South African conditions and requirements - an approach I strongly recommend. There are distinct advantages in trying to make an existing text more relevant and accessible to South African students rather than to produce yet another comprehensive textbook which might be more relevant but possibly less sound than a book which has proved its worth internationally.

Nevertheless we are still forced to concentrate on rigour rather than relevance. There is, of course, much to be said for this approach (especially since there is always a danger of sacrificing the required analytical rigour in favour of a perceived relevance - in which case the student can quite conceivably end up with a disjointed set of ideas and facts about Economics). But it remains a second-best approach. It can be, and is, of course, rectified to a certain extent in the discussion classes and by tutorial letters. However, only a limited number of students are reached by way of classes. Tutorial letters can also only be used to a limited extent. It should be borne in mind that things can change extremely rapidly in Economics, with the result that tutorial letters updating the prescribed material can even be outdated by the time they reach the students.

As I mentioned at the outset, this emphasis on rigour was one of the things which bothered me when I joined UNISA. However, I have come to accept this approach, which fortunately has distinct advantages if one is dealing with an analytically-based subject.

ASSIGNMENTS

The assignments and the subsequent tutorial letters, setting out and explaining the answers, constitute the major means of communication with our students. In fact, for most students it is the only real means of communication with the lecturers, and vice versa. In the first two years most of the assignments (10 out of 11 in Economics I and 8 out of 10 in Economics II) consist of 20 to 25 multiple-choice questions. In Economics III there are 6 assignments, all consisting of essays.

The abundance of multiple-choice questions bothered me at first. But I am now convinced that they can be particularly useful in teaching Economics, especially in the first and second years, and provided sufficient time and energy is devoted to their formulation. Let us briefly consider some of the main advantages and disadvantages of the use of multiple-choice questions in first- and second-year assignments.

The first major advantage is that they can be used to force the student to consult all the prescribed material. If one relies on essays alone, most students will simply concentrate on those parts of the prescribed material which contain the information that is required to write the essays. This advantage applies to all courses, irrespective of their contents.

Secondly, multiple-choice questions can be used to force the student to think, provided the material is of an analytical nature. Fortunately, most of Economics I and almost all of Economics II meet this requirement. At the same time these questions enable the students to determine whether or not

they really understand the prescribed material and/or which specific concepts, causal relationships etc. they have not yet grasped.

I must add, however, that I can think of nothing more frustrating to a student than to struggle with a set of multiple-choice questions which cannot be reasoned out analytically, with the "correct" answer depending on semantics, on the whim, fancy, ideology or judgement of the lecturer concerned. We also have examples of such frustrating questions, but fortunately Economics has a well-developed analytical base which can be employed to set meaningful and informative multiple-choice questions in the majority of the assignments. I often pity my colleagues in certain other departments who apparently have to concoct meaningless (and often ridiculous) multiple-choice questions in "disciplines" to which they are simply not suitable.

A third, and by no means least, advantage of multiple-choice questions is that they are relatively easy to mark (accurately and objectively at that). I shall return to the way in which we mark our assignments in due course.

The most obvious disadvantage of multiple-choice questions is that they do not teach the student to write, to communicate, i.e. to convey their knowledge (or lack of it). In principle, I suppose, most educators would prefer essays, and so would I. But in our case there are several significant constraints which preclude the extensive use of essays in the first and second years. If one has 10 lecturers teaching a course (along with other courses) in which 4000 to 5000 assignments are received every fortnight (or 7 lecturers and 2000 assignments), and only 1 prescribed book per course, the liberal use of essays is effectively ruled out. Most students will in any case simply copy parts of the prescribed material and the lecturers will be in no

position to consistently do justice to the assignments.

I would also argue that students are either able to communicate or not. It is in any case not feasible to teach them effective communication and logic in mass courses such as Economics I and II. Moreover, the reason why most students cannot write a good essay is simply that they have an insufficient grasp (if any) of the prescribed material. On the other hand, if a student really understands the material (and I have argued that multiple-choice questions can sometimes be an effective means towards achieving this), then one usually finds that the student is able to convey his knowledge in essay form.

In other words, I would argue that the student who has grasped the essential logic of his subject will be in a position to write a good essay and that multiple-choice questions are potentially very useful in teaching this logic. But the latter requires a lot of attention - in fact, much more than many lecturers seem to realise. It requires constant innovation - new sets of questions have to be prepared each year; the results have to be analysed carefully to ascertain which parts of the work the students find particularly difficult; there must be extensive and effective feedback, i.e. the answers have to be carefully explained so that the students can see where they have gone wrong (and learn from their mistakes); and one must use the opportunity to highlight and explain all the important issues. For example, if one assumes that the assignment questions are the most diligently read parts of the syllabus, one should use the opportunity to highlight, clarify and expand on the most important aspects in or between the various questions.

Let me hasten to add, however, that while I find multiple-choice questions a particularly useful teaching device in

Economics (in the distance-teaching environment), they are much less suited for examining purposes. In this respect the Economics Department unfortunately also has to plead guilty. I have no doubt that we will simply have to scale down the use of multiple-choice questions in the first- and second-year examinations. We cannot dispose of them, however, partly because they form such an integral part of these courses. And they are not useless or unfair either, since the analytical nature of Economics permits one to test many aspects of the students' knowledge and logic in this way. They also inhibit the tendency to "spot" because the whole syllabus can be covered by setting a number of multiple choice questions along with the essays.

THE MARKING OF ASSIGNMENTS

Given that assignments are our major means of communication with the students, it stands to reason that particular attention should be paid to marking. If the student does not receive effective and informative feedback, practically all is lost.

I have always contended that one can only really master a subject by teaching it. At a residential university a lecturer faces his real test in the classroom. While there is no real substitute for this test at UNISA, there are still many areas in which the lecturer can improve his knowledge and teaching ability. One of these is the marking of essays, which can be quite a challenge in itself. A student who receives back an essay without extensive comments has not received any tuition. If a student argues incorrectly, or misses a major point, it has to be pointed out explicitly. Even when he has simply plagiarised the prescribed material, he still has to be penalised and warned of the consequences of repeating his misdemeanour.

As far as multiple-choice questions are concerned, we have a fairly unique system of marking in our Department, which might seem cumbersome to some, but which nevertheless has distinct advantages.

The system has two major aims: to facilitate "personal" contact with the students and to provide feedback to them. What we do is the following: For each assignment a set of comments are prepared as a guideline to the markers (in each case every lecturer marks at least 100 completed assignments and the rest are allocated to outside markers). Each assignment is then marked by hand with a mask and the relevant personalised comments are entered on the assignment cover. The comments fall into two major categories: general comments (according to the mark obtained) and specific comments (which point to those parts of the prescribed material that the student has obviously not mastered). A typical example of the instructions to the markers is attached as Appendix A.

The system works particularly well and has a number of distinct advantages. Firstly, assignments can be marked as they are received and dispatched immediately after the due date. In fact, students often receive their marked assignments with handwritten comments within a week of submission. Secondly, each lecturer is constantly aware of the students' progress and problems and has the opportunity of communicating with at least 100 students every fortnight or month, often adding a personalised note of congratulations, encouragement or warning. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, students perceive a genuine interest in themselves as human beings as well as a concern with their progress. This latter aspect is invariably stressed in conversations or correspondence with students. In fact, we often receive letters or telephone calls from students expressing their appreciation for our approach. Perhaps this is an example that can be followed by other large departments that other-

wise find it difficult to "personalise" their courses.

As far as the students' performance in multiple-choice assignments are concerned, there is one further interesting aspect which should perhaps be emphasized: with a well-structured assignment one can achieve a most satisfactory distribution of marks. In the case of essays the marks are often concentrated in, say, the 40 to 60 per cent range, while skimpy or repetitive multiple-choice assignments often result in skewed distributions. Appendix B, which contains the distribution for the first two assignments in ECN202-L in 1986, shows what can be achieved with carefully prepared assignments in a course which has a strong analytical basis. Students who obtained 80 per cent and more in these assignments did outstandingly well (and were praised accordingly).

Another important aspect is the number of assignments submitted by each student. When I joined UNISA certain of my colleagues alleged that there was no correlation between the number of assignments submitted and the students' performance in the examination, while others maintained that it was indeed the case. Always curious, I did a little empirical investigation of my own in 1985, comparing the performance of the students who submitted all 5 assignments in ECN202-L with the average performance of all the students.

The results were statistically quite significant. Whereas the average pass rate was approximately 50 per cent, more than 70 per cent of those who had submitted all the assignments passed the course. Moreover, most of the distinctions were achieved by the latter group. Correlation does, of course, not imply causality. One could, for example, argue that the serious students have a better chance of passing in any case, i.e. irrespective of the fact that they are the ones who submit all the assignments. Nevertheless, this

little empirical exercise has at least forced some of my colleagues to reconsider their previous viewpoints.

One major problem, of course, is that most students only submit enough assignments to gain admission to the examination. In a sense this makes a mockery of the courses, since students have to do all the assignments in order to cover the prescribed material. Personaly, I only worry about those students who do all the assignments and then still fail. The rest are explicitly and repeatedly warned not to try a soft option and if they choose to disregard the warning, then they have to face the consequences. The question, nevertheless, remains whether one should be strict or lenient in admitting students to the first- and second-year examinations. In later years, especially at the Honours level, I am convinced that the requirements should be as strict as possible. To simply allow all and sundry to sit for the exams at that level, arguing that one then has the opportunity of selecting the good from the bad, is immoral, to say the least.

Having commented at length on the question of assignments, I shall be fairly brief as far as certain other important aspects of our Department's activities are concerned.

DISCUSSION CLASSES

The Economics I, II and III lecturers present discussion classes in Pretoria (Afrikaans and English separately), Durban (mainly in English) and Cape Town (Afrikaans and English). The Economics I lecturers also visit Pietersburg. The number of classes vary from course to course, but on average a student in any of these centres can count on up to 24 hours of contact sessions during a year. One fact which has to be stressed here, is that the most senior and experienced lecturers available usually present the classes.

Junior members also attend, but often have to gain some experience before giving a class (and even then they are supervised/assisted at first). We cannot, of course, reach all the students in this way. However, the figures in Table 2 below are quite surprising, given our large student numbers and the geographical dispersion of the students.

TABLE 2: ATTENDANCE OF DISCUSSION CLASSES (PERCENTAGE OF REGISTERED STUDENTS), 1986

ECN 100-F	14,3%
ECN 201-K	20,0%
ECN 202-L	19,0%
ECN 301-N	36,2%
ECN 302-P	36,1%
ECN 303-Q	35,2%
ECN 304-R	27,3%

Note: These are minimum figures, based on the highest single attendance in each course. In ECN 202-L, for example, the actual number of students who attended at least one discussion class turned out to be 24% of the registered students.

Although they naturally constitute a form of discrimination, the discussion classes serve several important purposes, of which I shall only mention a few. Firstly, it disciplines the lecturer, who has to face large numbers of students (up to 300 at a time) and prove his or her competence in long, often gruelling three-hour sessions. Secondly, it brings him in direct contact with a wide variety of students in a format which enables him to gauge the students' comprehension of, and problems with, the prescribed material. Thirdly, it stimulates the students (who often need to be stimulated in their lonely battles!), especially if the lecturer can impart some enthusiasm for the subject. Fourthly, it enables the lecturer to discuss relevant

topical issues which could otherwise not be accommodated in the distance-teaching environment. And fifthly, and most importantly, it enables the students to really come to grips with aspects of the work which they probably would not have been able to do otherwise.

In Economics II we also conduct a "quiz" during each round of discussion classes. Previously prepared questions on basic concepts and analytical tools are distributed and the students are then given a short period to consider and answer the questions. During this period the lecturer moves among the students, discussing individual problems and giving personal tuition. The questions are then discussed one by one. These quizzes help to encourage student participation and also help the lecturer to pinpoint particular problems or problem areas. By and large students seem to appreciate these exercises (even though the questions have no direct bearing on the examination paper!).

In view of the obvious advantages of the discussion classes I have often wondered how much the students really gain by them. In an attempt to obtain some information in this regard, I therefore requested the Bureau of Management Information to assist me in comparing the performance of those students who attended the discussion classes in 1986 with those who did not. Unfortunately, the final results of this investigation are not yet available (at the time of writing) but I hope to report on them when this paper is presented.

In conclusion I wish to add that I thoroughly enjoy the discussion classes, in spite of the fact that between 6 and 8 three-hour sessions in a fortnight (from 17h00 to 20h00) can be quite gruelling at times, especially as one has to fly between different centres. The fact that we have mature students who have already been in contact with the prescribed work before attending the classes and who generally

appreciate the opportunity of having the work discussed and explained in person, usually results in most stimulating and satisfactory sessions. In fact, I doubt whether I would really have enjoyed my work at UNISA as much as I do had these contact sessions not been available. (I also find it a pity that the authorities have deemed it fit to cut the budget for discussion classes in Economics, especially in view of the immense saving our Department regularly generates for the University - as a result of the large number of unfilled vacancies).

EXAMINATIONS

In distance education examinations are, of course, even more important than at residential universities. In this regard I only wish to make one personal observation.

Many papers at UNISA are examined by more than one lecturer. In these circumstances I am strongly in favour of a system whereby the essay questions are divided among the different examiners, with any specific question being marked by one lecturer only (or two, if the numbers are simply too large). At UNISA we are compelled to aim at maximum fairness in marking the examination papers and as far as I am concerned this is the best (and possibly only) system whereby a consistent (and fair) standard of marking can be achieved. This approach is followed in all the courses which I am responsible for, including the ECN202-L paper which is written by more than 2000 students. Each lecturer is assigned a specific question (or set of questions) and after all the papers have been marked, I remark all the borderline cases, consulting the other lecturers if necessary. We also consider those students' performance during the year, especially the number of assignments submitted, before deciding whether they should pass or fail. This is the only system I can live with, especially in our

particular circumstances. Of course, many of my colleagues do not share my views, but I doubt whether they will ever be able to convince me to change my ways.

In this paper I have touched on but a few aspects of our work in teaching Economics at UNISA. Many problems and possible innovations have been omitted, and much of what I have said might be regarded as old hat. Nevertheless, the exercise has not been completely worthless. It has at least forced me to take stock of my experience during the past three years.

APPENDIX A

ECONOMICS II - ASSIGNMENT 02/1986 ECN202-L

1. Awarding of marks

1.1 Assignment 02 has 25 questions each worth 4 marks.

1.2 The mark obtained should be entered on the Assignment Cover under "Marks awarded" as well as "Admission credit". On the Covering Docket for Assignments it should be entered under "% mark" as well as "Admission credit".

1.3 This assignment counts 100 marks.

2. Comment

Comments must be made on each assignment.

2.1 Refer to previous performance

Determine, with the aid of the Covering Docket, the mark the student obtained for 01/86 - 0 implies, of course, that 01/86 was not handed in - and comment accordingly, e.g. "A significant improvement on your previous mark. Keep it up." or "You cannot afford to relax." USE YOUR OWN DISCRETION.

2.2 General comments

Marks

92-100	An excellent performance! You have mastered the work.
80-88	Excellent! Keep it up.
64-76	A good assignment + specific comments.
52-60	A satisfactory assignment + specific comments.
36-48	This is an important assignment. Revise it thoroughly with the aid of TL202/86.
0-32	Either you paid insufficient attention to this assignment or you have not yet grasped the prescribed work. Revise it thoroughly with the aid of TL202/86 before proceeding to 03/86.

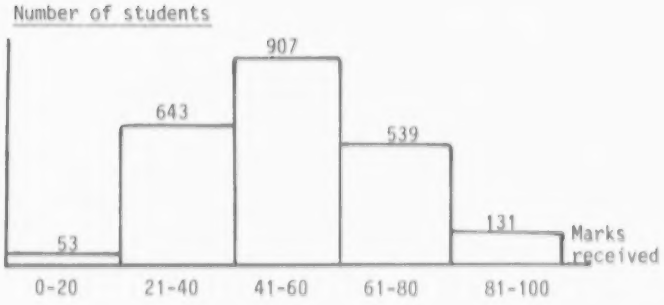
2.3 Specific comments

1-9	Revise the IS curve.
10-14	Revise the LM curve.
15-21	Revise D & F, pp. 116-31.
22-25	Revise D & F, ch. 18.

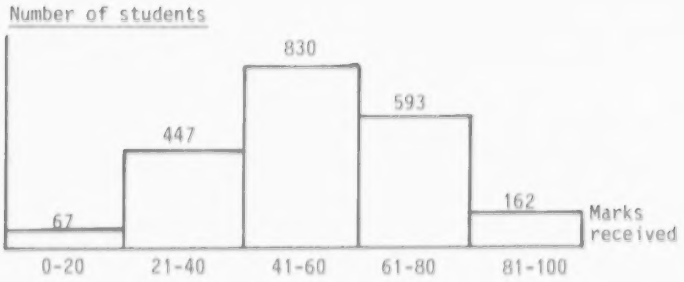
APPENDIX B

MARK DISTRIBUTION ECN202-L 1986

ASSIGNMENT 01/1986
(Average mark 52%)



ASSIGNMENT 02/1986
(Average mark 55%)



3504

POST GRADUATE STUDIES IN LAW THROUGH DISTANCE TEACHING : THE UNISA APPROACH

Pierre E.J. Brooks
Mercantile Law

Prefatory remarks

We live in an era of unprecedented political and social change, spectacular technological advances and dangerous interstate rivalry and conflict. The issues which confront us are probably more profuse, disparate and complex than they have ever been. They perforce also tax the resolve, the vision and the expertise of lawyers.

The University of South Africa's awareness of and response to the challenges of our time are, inter alia, reflected in the range of post graduate degrees it offers. In this contribution the spotlight falls on post graduate qualifications in law.

The traditional LLM and LLD degrees

The traditional LLM and LLD degrees comprise two components, namely (a) an oral examination in a main and two ancilliary subjects, and (b) either a dissertation in the case of the LLM degree or a thesis in the case of an LLD degree. Although the format of the two degrees is the same, there are obviously qualitative and quantitative differences between the two.

The choice of the main and two ancilliary subjects for the oral examination is made by the candidates themselves, usually after consultation with one or more of the professors in the Faculty. One of the ancilliary subjects could be a non-legal subject. In order to circumscribe the parameters of the oral examination, the candidate is provided with a reading list of the material he is expected to master. The oral examination precedes the submission of the dissertation/thesis and is, inter alia, intended to ensure that the candidate has sound basic knowledge of the area of the law in which he will do his research. The date of the oral examination is determined by the

candidate. However, it is possible that a supervisor/promoter may intervene and set a deadline where it appears that a student is deferring the examination without reasonable cause.

Since it demarcates the relevant field of research, the choice of a suitable title for the dissertation/thesis is an important matter. As a general rule students will require a good deal of guidance from their supervisor/promoter in this regard.

Law is essentially parochial. For this reason I believe that one of the objectives of the research that must be done for an LLM or LLD degree should be to encourage lawyers to shed their insularity. This is achieved by requiring them to add an extraterritorial and/or historical dimension to their studies so that, hopefully, at the end of the exercise they will better be able to identify and appreciate the strengths and deficiencies of their own legal system's approach to the aspect being investigated.

The frequency and intensity of the guidance provided by a supervisor/promoter in the writing of a dissertation/thesis will differ from case to case. In the final analysis, the work submitted, whether in draft or final form, will be judged by the extent and relevance of the research undertaken, by the writer's ability to collate, conceptualise and to reason in a coherent, systematic manner, and by his attention to technical detail.

The "new" LLM degree

Towards the end of the last decade it became apparent that a reappraisal of the LLM degree was called for. In contradistinction to what one would have expected, the LLD degree was drawing considerably more support than the LLM degree. The following statistics tell the story.

	LLM Registration	LLD Registration
1960	2	4
1961	4	6
1962	3	8
1963	4	11
1964	3	15
1965	11	14
1966	16	19
1967	19	20
1968	16	27
1969	16	30
1970	19	30
1971	19	32
1972	20	34
1973	20	36
1974	23	37
1975	18	36
1976	15	30
1977	25	33
1978	22	40
1979	12	35
1980	23	39
1981	22	33
1982	27	31
1983	37	39

It is of particular significance that at no stage during the twenty-four year period under review did the registration figures for the LLM degree exceed those of the LLD degree. The crux of the matter was simply that since LLB students who qualify for admission to post graduate study had the option of registering for the LLD degree without first having to obtain the LLM degree, this was precisely what the majority of them had done.

After much deliberation and debate it was decided to introduce an additional post graduate option for law students, namely an LLM degree comprising (a) a written 3-hour examination in four selected papers, and (b) a research component in the form of a "publishable article" having an equivalent weighting to that of each of the aforesaid papers.

The programme was offered for the first time in 1984 with 15 papers from which students could make their selection, ie 10 in the Department of Mercantile Law and 5 in the Department of Criminal and Procedural Law. This has now been increased to 24 papers (11 in the Department of Mercantile Law, 5 in the Department of Criminal and Procedural Law, 4 in the Department of Legal History, Comparative Law and Legal Philosophy, and 4 in the Department

of Private Law). A further increase is in the offing next year (1988).

Students are provided with the prescribed material for each of the selected papers. As a general rule the material is compiled in a manner which is calculated to broaden a student's knowledge of the relevant subject, to focus his attention on problem areas and to improve his insight. Further guidance and information in tutorial letters and at group discussions is provided as from time to time determined by the lecturers, who are, of course, also available to discuss any difficulties a student may encounter at a mutually convenient time.

Immediately following the introduction of the new LLM degree there was a dramatic reversal in the ratio between LLM and LLD registrations. Moreover, from the outset the new LLM degree proved to be more popular than its traditional counterpart. This is substantiated by the following figures.

	LLM Registrations	LLD Registrations
1984	66 (30 Trad, 36 New)	34
1985	110 (24 Trad, 86 New)	36
1986	148 (25 Trad, 123 New)	40

It is also interesting to note that in 1983 the Law Faculty attracted almost 7 per cent of all registered students at Unisa, but only 2,6 per cent of the students registered for masters' degrees. In 1984 the respective percentages were 6,9 and 4,4, in 1985 6,7 and 7,0, and in 1986 6,4 and 8,4.

Appraisal

I venture to suggest that Unisa's post graduate programmes in law are sufficiently diverse, extensive and flexible to accommodate the aspirations, preferences and particular skills of most of the students who have the intellectual ability and commitment to acquire an LLM or LLD degree.

The emphasis which is placed on independent research and study in the programmes we offer is in accordance with what is expected of post graduate

students in law at residential universities in South Africa and overseas. I also submit that the range of options we offer and the demands we make of our students is on a comparable level with the programmes being offered at other leading universities in the English-speaking world.

This does not mean that we can afford to be complacent. Neither should we be blind to the fact that adjustments and improvements to the system will have to be made from time to time. The issues which I believe already require our attention include -

(a) increasing the duration of the written examinations for the new LLM degree from three to four hours,

(b) dispensing with the oral examination for the traditional LLM and LLD degrees where the esteem in which a candidate is held and/or his wide experience warrants it, and

(c) curtailing the latitude which students enjoy at present in determining the date of their oral examination.

DISTANCE EDUCATION IN ASTRONOMY - A CHALLENGE

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1. INTRODUCTION

Astronomy is considered as the oldest of all sciences. Babylonian clay tablets originating in the Tigris-Euphratus valley in Mesopotamia, dating about 5000 years back, give evidence of detailed tabulations of lunar and planetary positions. A number of astro-archaeologists even suggested that certain cave wall inscriptions, which date back 25 000 years to the end of the last ice age, might represent the dawn of astronomical research on lunar phases. Despite the fact that in the 17th and 18th century mathematical astronomy, which comprises the study of the positions of planetary and stellar objects relative to sun and earth, was developed, in the 19th century the emphasis has reversed with the rise of astrophysics and most of our current research efforts are concerned with the physical properties of celestial bodies. Notwithstanding all these developments, astronomy/astrophysics has, above all, remained an observational science.

2. DEVELOPMENT OF ASTRONOMY AT UNISA

Universities are the classical places where a full education in astronomy is provided. Although it is generally accepted as a self-study subject to make provision for amateur activity on purely observational grounds, it is this part of self-education where universities lack almost completely. The result is that a young astronomer, coming from a university and who faces a modern high-tech observatory, is stunned by the technical environment. Even though computers took over most of the observational work, the fine-tuned process still remains with the observer.

Before we look at a possible solution to this problem, let us review the particular situation of astronomy at Unisa:

The University of South African offers an unique tuition system for astronomy: a BSc degree, together with the full range of postgraduate levels, is offered in the realm of distance tuition. The emphasis lies on the 'BSc in Astronomy' and 'distance tuition'. To see this more clearly, we cast a brief look on the historic development of astronomy at the University of South Africa which can be divided into three major phases:

Phase I: Introduction of the syllabus in 1961 to 1977

This period is marked by the building up of a BSc curriculum, with emphasis on mathematical astronomy.

Phase II: 1978 to 1985

This period is characterized by two developments: the introduction of a module of more general nature, 'Introduction to General Astronomy' in 1978, and the extension of the curriculum to astrophysics. The first course at honours level is offered as part of an honours degree in Mathematics or Applied Mathematics.

Phase III: 1986 onwards

Extension to postgraduate levels (Hons BSc, MSc and PhD) and the rearranging of the undergraduate syllabus takes place. Mathematical astronomy and astrophysics are now balanced at undergraduate level, while at postgraduate level the latter is emphasized more.

From an historical viewpoint, astronomy at Unisa has always been attached to the Department of Mathematics and Applied Mathematics which, of course, makes the development of the mathematical branch of astronomy as from 1961 onwards, understandable. The most common combination however is the marriage of Physics and Astronomy. The year 1985 is marked by

another essential step which initiated the third phase: the official incorporation of astronomy into the name of the Department as 'Department of Mathematics, Applied Mathematics and Astronomy'.

3. THE ASTRONOMY SYLLABUS AND STUDENT NUMBERS

Modern astronomy/astrophysics rests on four corner stones: physics, mathematics, chemistry and computer science. All four corner stones influence astronomy in one way or the other, and it is almost unimaginable to neglect one of them. As a rule residential universities in South Africa do not offer a BSc in Astronomy. Tuition starts either on the second and/or third year level, with one or two full/half courses, and is concentrated on the postgraduate level. This situation allows for an intense background in physics, mathematics, chemistry and computer science at undergraduate level.

The situation at the University of South Africa must be seen in quite a different light. For distance tuition it would not be a satisfactory solution to start a subject at second/third level or even at honours level. Does this mean specialisation from the first day of study? That surely would not be desirable in respect of the 'four corner stones'. A BSc in astronomy also does not provide many employment perspectives at this level.

The University of South Africa offers a fairly unique alternative: the student is given the opportunity to offer various combinations of major subjects for his BSc, namely Astronomy/Physics, Astronomy/Mathematics, Astronomy/Applied Mathematics, Astronomy/Chemistry, Astronomy/Computer Science or Astronomy/Statistics. A number of 20 compulsory modules, allowing for a basic background in mathematics, physics, chemistry and computer science, is included in the curriculum for the BSc. The advantages of these core modules are obvious: the BSc student covers a much wider field in his study, which allows a balance between mathematical astronomy and astrophysics - the first of which is quite neglected in present astronomy tuition -, and intensive preparation for the honours level. It is important to mention here that a professional astronomer has either completed a Masters degree, or holds a PhD. The work envi-

ronment is, due to specialisation, restricted to a university (teaching and research), astronomical observatories (research) and satellite research institutions (research and practical application). In general, observatories or satellite stations require that an applicant for a vacancy holds a PhD.

In 1978 a descriptive first-year module 'Introduction to General Astronomy' was introduced. In 1986 this module was revised and renamed 'General Introduction to Astronomy'. There is no specific prerequisite imposed on this module, in other words, it is open to the student who is interested in science in general or astronomy in particular. This module is coupled directly to the whole curriculum in the sense that in the subsequent first-level modules (2), second-level modules (3) and third-level modules (4), the syllabus offers an in-depth look at large parts covered in this module. On the other hand, a student may enrol for it without any intention of further studies in astronomy, purely for the sake of interest. Registration statistics show that there was a demand for that: from 1977 to 1978 we had an increase of 30% from 180 to 230 module students. Statistics also reveal that we can divide our first-year students into three categories: those students who need an extra course to complete a BSc, those who are 'stargazers' or amateurs (together these categories carry 70% to 80%) and the third category are those students who intend to study astronomy as a career (about 20%). In the course of second- and third-year study, there is a drop-out rate of about 80% to 90%, leaving a handful of students preparing for the honours level. This selective process seems quite healthy, otherwise it would become quite difficult to place at the student's disposal a proper work offer at universities or observatories in the country.

Investigation into the age of our first-year students shows that our oldest students are well over 60 and our youngest ones under 20, placing the average age at about 29 years.

In Figure 1 (see next page) a histogram is displayed which summarises the total number of module-students at undergraduate level as from 1963 onwards.

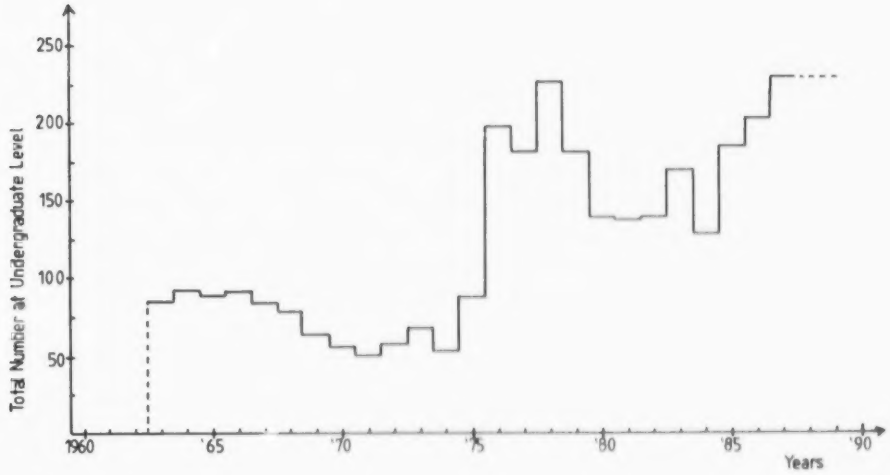

Figure 1 : Total Number of Module-students at Undergraduate Level Between 1963 and 1987

Phase I : 1961 to 1977
Phase II : 1978 to 1985 (as indicated in section 2.)
Phase III : 1986 onwards

As for 1961 and 1962, there are no reliable student figures available. Up to 1975 comprehensive courses for first-, second- and third-year levels were offered. This means that the histogram represents, during this period, the true number of students which are on average 75 per year. An obvious jump in student enrolments occurred in 1976, which must be considered as artificial due to the introduction of the module system, where eg the first year was split up in 3 modules. From 1978 onwards - the year of the introduction of 'Introduction to General Astronomy' - the module-student numbers settled at around 150 per year. From 1985 onwards, a steady increase of the enrolment figures is the tendency. There could be several reasons for that, ie the extension to postgraduate levels in 1986 and the combined intensified promotion and the much heralded return of comet Halley in 1985/86 which caused a lot of interest in astronomy.

4. DISTANCE TUITION IN ASTRONOMY

Tuition in Astronomy must be measured against the practical component as outlined in the introduction. Distance tuition opens a challenge and an experimental field because there is almost no direct contact with the student. How can we tackle this problem?

Unfortunately there are not enough students registered in the Astronomy modules to allow for group visits in South Africa. For comparison, the module-student numbers in Physics and Chemistry are around 2 000, and in Mathematics and Applied Mathematics about 7 000 to 8 000. Lecturers are going regularly to Cape Town to do astronomical observation at our national observatory in Sutherland (Southern Africa Astronomical Observatory). In the course of this, informal group visits are organized where the course of study, the tutorial material and assignments are discussed. In addition to this, lecture evenings are held on an irregular basis at the University of South Africa. Students of Johannesburg, Pretoria and vicinity, who represent about 50% of the registered students, are invited to these lectures. Furthermore, throughout the year a number of viewing evenings are organised at Unisa's own telescope.

.1 In 1985 the lecturers undertook a theoretical project with the students, namely the planning and designing of an astronomy exhibition. The final outcome of this project - the exhibition 'Comet Halley, Comets in General and Our Solar System' - was successful. In fact, the exhibition was displayed in Pretoria, Cape Town, Stellenbosch and Durban. Five first- and second-year students were involved.

Several observational projects are carried out, such as the photographic observation of comet Halley in 1985/86 or the Supernova occurrence in 1987. These projects are in progress at the Hartebeespoort Observatory (near Pretoria). Interested students at all levels, including honours, are invited to participate actively in these observations. After a comprehensive familiarisation with the telescope and the observational techniques, the students work in groups of two or three, either with a supervisor or on their own. The response from the students' side is quite enthusiastic. These projects are thus far not compulsory and they are not included in the syllabus. The number of students who participated were between 5 to 10 in 1985/86.

.2 The tutorial matter for the undergraduate levels consists of study guides for the particular modules and corresponding tutorial letters 1 to 3. In principle, for the first, second and third year, one book is prescribed and a number of books recommended. The assignments are set out to cover, besides purely theoretical calculations, also some practical work. The latter is given as follows: a series of observations is given, and the corresponding techniques with which it is obtained is explained in detail. From that the student may carry out a 'real' reduction, plotting graphs and arranging diagrams, finally to come to some conclusions.

Special attention is given to the introductory module as mentioned under point 3. It is designed to stimulate a broad response, provided of course an interest in the subject is present. The tutorial matter comprises a guide, tutorial letters, assignments and a prescribed book to allow the student, besides a purely descriptive view, also a look at the mathematical, physical and chemical aspects, which will be emphasized in the following modules on first-,

second- and third-year level. With this module, an interesting situation is created: it has the function of a self-contained study, but is also fully integrated into the whole curriculum.

To support these efforts, a series of videos is planned for the coming years. They are concentrating on a special topic such as comets, planets, stars, galaxies and cover the present knowledge on this matter. These will be sent to the students as part of their tutorial matter. The pilot project which is in preparation for 1987, highlights the position of Astronomy at Unisa in concentrating on the distance tuition aspect.

.3 At the honours level, in addition to the regular papers, a further elective topic has been introduced in 1986, 'Special Topics on Astronomy, Astrophysics and Astrodynamics', which allows, at an advanced level, a first-step-into-research-approach. The student may select the practical (observational) or theoretical component of this topic. The tutorial material consists of lecture notes and publications together with the practical training of the technique at an observatory, either at SAAO/Sutherland, SAAO/Johannesburg (former Republic Observatory) or Broederstroom Observatory. To fulfill the examination requirements, the student must submit a number of theoretical assignments together with a report on the observational technique and results. The latter counts towards the final examination results. Finally, the student sits for a three-hour examination paper which covers the theoretical and practical aspects of his work throughout the year.

5. CONCLUSION

The historic development of Astronomy at the University of South Africa, combined with the student enrolments, shows clearly that we meet the needs of the students who wish to study Atronomy - even more so since we introduced the postgraduate levels as from 1986.

Distance education does not stand in the way - it even offers an opportunity of combined self-contained study in the form of an introductory

module with a comprehensive astronomical curriculum. The obvious disadvantages of distance tuition are partly overcome with the inclusion of assignments of a more practical nature and with the initiation of observational projects. Although the latter are at present on a voluntary basis, the response from the students' side is positive.

In the very near future it is planned to introduce an astronomical laboratory course on second- or third-year level which will be compulsory. As an innovation we are considering to build a very modern model observatory on campus at relatively low cost to offer students the environment of a modern high-tech observatory.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank mr P C Minnaar, Head of the Bureau for Management Information of the University of South Africa, who provided me with the statistical data on the student enrolments.

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3605

CHEMISTRY, ITS PRACTICAL COMPONENT AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

Prof. G. McGillivray
Department of Chemistry, UNISA

In 1961 the Chemistry Department was established at the University of South Africa notwithstanding considerable opposition from other universities and a new facet of distance education came into being. For the first time distance education was to be the vehicle for presenting an experimental science. Not only an experimental science with an essential practical component, but an experimental science with a practical component which is normally carried out in a formal laboratory.

At the outset one of the aims was to bring undergraduate University education to the laboratory assistant and post-graduate education to graduates in industry, prospective students who for some reason were not able to study full time. There is no doubt that the in-service training aspect was a contributing factor to the support given to the project by the industrial sector. Because of these origins, an important, and in my opinion correct, decision was taken, viz. that the vocational aspect of the practical courses was essential. Practical work had therefore to be carried out in formal laboratories and the limiting of practical to the use of "Home Chemistry sets" to illustrate aspects of the subject material would not suffice.

Registration was limited to students with access to suitably equipped laboratories and suitably qualified supervisor(s). Because of the nature of the initial target group this did not constitute a serious problem as most of the prospective students were working (often for many more hours than the average undergraduate) in adequately equipped laboratories under the

supervision of some senior person with the necessary qualifications and experience. Students in each of the undergraduate years and the honours year were required to carry out a series of prescribed experiments during the course of the year. Then, to ensure minimum standards, students were required to attend a practical examination in Pretoria at the end of the year. To avoid unnecessary expense, however, the practical examinations were limited to those students who had obtained the required subminima in the theory examinations and were in a position to pass the examination as a whole.

In all cases the time estimated for the student to carry out the prescribed experiments during the year was similar to the number of hours that students at attendance universities spend on similar practical courses. Students could, however, retain the advantage offered by distance education in that they could set their own timetable for completing the prescribed experiments. At all levels practical courses at attendance universities were, and still are, accepted as a suitable alternative and students who satisfy the minimum requirements are exempt from the practical work and practical examinations in the equivalent UNISA courses.

Assessment of the practical procedures after a period of four years highlighted the first weakness. Three days were inadequate for practical examinations at the Honours level as the time limit precluded the inclusion of experiments commensurate with the standards required at this level. The practical examinations for Honours were dropped and students assessed on their performance in the prescribed experiments. (The present procedure for Honours practical will be discussed later.)

In the late sixties a second and more serious problem became apparent. Students in the third year were having difficulties in obtaining access to laboratories that satisfied the requirements for all four of the main branches of Chemistry (Analytical, Inorganic, Organic and Physical). Many of the

students worked in Quality Control laboratories and although these were usually adequate for the first two of the above branches of chemistry they did not always meet the requirements in Organic and Physical Chemistry, particularly with respect to instrumentation. As a result there was a danger of students being refused registration at this advanced level in their studies or of them being allowed to do their practical work in laboratories which in certain respects were at best marginal.

It became clear that there was only one long term solution to the problem. Students would have to attend compulsory laboratory courses at the UNISA laboratories in Pretoria. In order to accomodate students from far afield it was obvious that such practicals could not be spread over the whole year. They would have to take place in a relatively short period of time. At the attendance universities the average third year practical course is of the order of 6-8 hours per week for 25 weeks i.e. 150-200 hours per year. In order to ensure similar standards it was necessary to extend the practical over a period of four weeks of 45 hours each. This system was introduced in 1970 with one week allocated to each of the main branches of Chemistry. The practical course is conducted during the month of June.

It is appreciated that this is a deviation from the true concept of distance education. However, maintaining academic standards is in my opinion essential and far more important than slavish adherance to a rigid system. It could better be considered as an example of the flexibility inherent in a distance education system.

Initially all registered students were automatically admitted to the third level practical course but it was soon found that this led to problems with inadequately prepared students. Not only did these students act as a drag on the better prepared students but it was found that some students were not in a position to benefit from the practical courses. The latter situation was particularly noticeable in the case of Physical Chemistry.

The introduction of the Modular System in the Faculty of Science in 1976 afforded an opportunity to rectify the problem. Each of the four third level modules has its own practical component, rather than a practical component for the third year as a whole. Excluding a student from the practical component of one branch of Chemistry would therefore only directly effect one module and not the whole third year course as would have been the case in the older system. This allowed the introduction of a procedure whereby only students who achieve certain minimum standards in the first assignment, and therefore demonstrating a commitment to their studies, are admitted to the practical course in June. The procedure was first introduced in Physical Chemistry but was extended to the other branches of Chemistry when its advantages became obvious.

The procedure as outlined above has been used for some years for the third level practical work and has generally been found to be satisfactory. It also allows for the assessment of students to be spread over a number of days rather during a single practical examination. Further it has certain advantages not directly related to practical work.

* It puts pressure on students to commence their studies as early as possible in the academic year, always difficult to achieve in distance education.

* It allows students to get to know their lecturers personally through contact over a period of time. This makes it easier for them to approach their lecturers directly later in the year.

* It allows for informal discussions on any part of the syllabus, not only practical work, that might not be possible otherwise.

In recent years the composition of the student population in the Chemistry Department, particularly at the first level, has changed. With the traditional laboratory assitant now in the minority more and more students find it difficult, if not impossible, to obtain access to suitable laboratory facilities. It has become essential to address this problem.

To limit the problem the structure of the first level modules was changed so that all the practical work was included in the one module CHE104 - Analytical Chemistry, not an unreasonable change as a large, and certainly the most important, part of 1st level chemistry practical is the manipulations associated with volumetric analysis. However, limiting the problem by no means solves it. Various attempts at a solution by making laboratory facilities available to students to carry out the UNISA practical work after hours under the control of chemists with no academic experience met with varying success. However, it became apparant, during the practical examinations that some students lacked the desired accuracy in some of the basic laboratory skills.

The only real solution to the problem was to require students to attend a formal practical course at a recognized academic institution. For the majority of students this would involve them attending a compulsory laboratory course at UNISA in Pretoria.

As in the case of the third level practical courses it was essential to concentrate the practical over a short period of time to accomodate students from far afield. To be comparable with attendance universities it would have to cover 75 to 90 hours and a practical course of two weeks (10 days at 8 hours per day) was decided on. Timing was an important factor and two important aspects had to be considered.

* To avoid unnecessary expense it would be unfair to require students with no chance of passing the module to travel to and spend two weeks in Pretoria.

* In order to ensure that the required standards are achieved in a very short space of time it is essential that students have a thorough grasp of the theoretical aspects of the subject before attempting the practical - there is no time for delays arising from lack of theoretical knowledge in the extremely tight schedule required in a practical course limited to a two week period.

With these points in mind it was decided to hold the practical course in November/December after the theory examination had been written and to restrict admission to those students who had passed all four 1st level written examinations. (Not necessarily in the same year as is allowed by the flexibility of the module system). This restriction in no way affects the normal progress of students, as passing all four modules is a prerequisite to admission to the second level Chemistry modules and all four modules constitute the Chemistry requirements in the Biological Sciences and similar subjects.

The new procedure for the first level practical course was first introduced in 1985 and has generally been considered to be a success. In particular it has been demonstrated that the required levels of competence can be achieved in a restricted period of time. Requiring students to pass the theory examination prior to attending the practical course is however important, as it not only ensures that all students have a sound knowledge of the theory, but also ensures that the students who attended are well motivated. Holding the practical course after the written examinations has the added advantage that it does not interrupt the students' study programme in either Chemistry or other subjects. There is no doubt that a high staff to student ratio is essential for success.

In the two years that the new procedure has been in operation certain problem areas have been identified that are directly associated with presenting the practical course over a restricted period of time.

The major problem area arises from the different levels of practical experience of the 1st level students when they start the practical course. This varies from the relatively highly experienced laboratory assistant to the student who has never had any laboratory experience at all. Another problem area arises from the varying times that it takes students to achieve the required proficiency irrespective of previous experience. Thirdly, students are required to assimilate a considerable amount of new information in a very limited time. It became obvious at an early stage that these problem areas would become more pronounced as the number of students doing the practical course increased and planning to overcome them is already in progress.

The approach planned is to identify certain key procedures in the practical course for which a minimum level of proficiency is essential and which can be measured quantitatively. Each student's progress will be carefully monitored and they will not be allowed to proceed to the next key stage until they have achieved the required level of proficiency. The faster workers will in the interim be moved to more qualitative experiments, preferable in another laboratory, before they return to tackle the next key procedure. By careful structuring of the practical course in this way it is hoped that the slower or less experienced practical workers will gain the required level of experience in all key procedures without being flustered by faster workers. At the same time faster or more experienced students will not be frustrated or held back by the slower workers and it will be possible for them to do additional experiments and so enrich their practical course.

There is little doubt that it is going to be necessary to introduce a similar compulsory practical course for second level students in the near future. Once a satisfactory procedure has been finalized for the first level students and with the experience gained over a number of years with the third level students this should constitute no major problem other than limitations associated with staffing, available laboratory space and available time in the academic calendar.

In the long term, decentralisation of the practical courses to other centres is a possible means of coping with increasing student numbers and the costs associated with students having to travel to Pretoria. Experience has shown, however, that it is desirable for the courses to be conducted by experienced teachers. At the first level limited attempts to allow the practical work to be carried out other acceptable educational institutions, such as the College of Education for Further Training and schools offering post-matric study, have generally proved satisfactory. Another possibility is to make use of laboratory facilities and teaching staff of other Universities during vacations.

At the Honours level the situation is somewhat different. If students were to do all their practical work in the UNISA laboratories this would require a minimum period of four months full time. This is far in excess of the normal leave avialable to employees, even when it is taken into consideration that the Honours course is spread over a minimum period of two years. A satisfactory compromise has been arrived at. Honours students are required to do their Organic Chemistry practical at UNISA (two periods of two weeks each) and they have to have access to suitably equipped laboratories for the remainder of the practical. In practice this means that either the students are employed by an organisation with suitable laboratories or they obtain permission to do their practical work at some other university. In the former case there are distinct advantages in

that the practical courses are often designed to suit the available facilities and as such give a far higher degree of in-service training than is normally the case with Honours practical. There is no doubt that the requirements with respect to practical facilities restrict the number of students registering for Honours but this is unavoidable if the required standards are to be met.

Since its inception the Department of Chemistry has also accepted students for both the MSc and PhD degrees. The awarding of these degrees is based entirely on research results published in a dissertation or thesis. It soon became apparent that, with the odd exception, it is not possible to do the research for these degrees on a purely part-time basis. Students are normally directly involved in research and must be able to devote a substantial part, if not all, of their time on the research topic for their degree. This has considerable advantages for both the student and the employer as the studies associated with the degree are directly related to the students chosen career and immediate occupation. The achievements over the past 25 years of the MSc and PhD students of the Department of Chemistry in the chemical community clearly demonstrates the success of this procedure.

In conclusion, it has been demonstrated that the practical component of Chemistry can be accommodated within the broad framework of distance education and satisfactory results can be achieved even when an entire practical course is covered during a limited period of time. Experience has shown, however, that when planning such courses the following considerations are important

* All practical work must be carried out in formal, well equipped laboratories.

* At the undergraduate level, particularly at 1st level, the practical courses must be controlled by experienced teachers.

* If the practical work is to be carried out during a limited time period then very careful planning and structuring of the course is essential. Allowance must be made for discrepancies in the experience and ability of students and a high staff to student ratio is important.

* Modification of the courses at regular intervals to accommodate improvements and changing requirements must be allowed for.

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PRACTICAL THEOLOGY AND DISTANCE TUITION

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1. INTRODUCTION

Radical changes in the concept of practical theology are making this discipline increasingly compatible with the practice of distance tuition. The present paper will indicate some of these changes and their implications for the teaching of practical theology by means of distance tuition.

2. PRACTICAL THEOLOGY AS A DISCIPLINE IN ITS OWN RIGHT

2.1 The traditional approach

It is no secret that over the past two centuries practical theology has been involved in a constant battle for recognition as a scientific discipline. More than any other theological discipline, says W.D. Jonker (1981:1), it has struggled to clarify its own identity. Ackermann (1985:4 et seq.) provides the following summary of its history:

> The problems with which our discipline grapples are partly inherent in its history. ... It was the intention ..., when pastoral theology was first introduced as a university subject in 1774, to equip pastors with so-called theoretical theology and pastoral advices, the latter in the form of techniques and recipes, for their task. This emphasis gave birth to the impression that the prime concern of practical

> theology is to focus solely on the actions of the pastor at the expense of the community of believers (Pieterse 1981:143). Emphasis on of the church. ... ''Ideal'' priests or pastors had to be trained to carry out the work of the church. ... In any event, practical theology in its original form as pastoral theology was seen as complementary to the other theological studies and as providing the practical application of theological knowledge to ministry in the form of a kind of professional training (Jonker 1981:10). Pastors had to be equipped so that they could properly fulfill their calling (Wolfaardt 1978:268). This accounts for the fact that practical theology has for a long time been divided into subjects which correspond to the basic functions of the church offices: homiletics, catechetics, pastoral care, diakonia, liturgics, missiology and evangelism (Firet 1970:326).

This final remark is an important one: it has had a profound impact on the practice of practical theology in different times and places. In particular it is logical that it should have produced congruent praxes according to which students of different denominations were instructed by specifically denominational teachers at separate seminaries or theological faculties. Since practical theology was viewed as applied dogmatics, it stands to reason that students were expected to study under strictly *denominational* supervision: under the guidance of competent but also denominationally loyal teachers. Since, furthermore, students had to be taught the *accepted techniques* of their churches, it is even more obvious that distance tuition has not so far been seen as a feasible option by the larger denominations.

Homing in on the South African situation, one has to agree with Wolfaardt (1985:56) that here, too, the practical training of ministers/pastors/

priests has been the chief consideration. It is a perfectly natural approach for someone who is seeking practical instruction - that theological study is a matter of studying theory which, after a few years, is applied in practice.

> The implication here, according to Wolfaardt, is that theory and practice are seen as two autonomous fields which co-exist and, as a result, no proper theory for praxis is developed (1983:99). A further and more basic implication is that the nature of theology in such an exercise is seen as applied knowledge. As Jonker points out, the question then arises: is practical theology only concerned with the practical training of future pastors or does it exist as a fully acceptable scientific theological discipline (1981:9)?

Are there other approaches to practical theology that are compatible with distance tuition? Indeed there are, and we shall now consider some other developments in order to obtain a better understanding of the role of distance tuition in recent practical theology.

2.2 Contemporary developments in practical theology

It will clearly not be feasible to try and explore all the developments that have taken place in practical theology. Only those will be discussed that have some direct bearing on the teaching of this subject by means of distance tuition.

2.2.1 The theory-praxis problem

Practical theology, too, has reflected the lively debate about the scientific/theoretical orientation of the theory-praxis problem that has

been going on in the human sciences since the Second World War. For our present purposes it need only be noted that there has been a reaction, partly against the normative-deductive methods which have predominated for so long, among certain theologians who have been exerting themselves to do justice to praxis by insisting that *all* church action should be subject to radical empirical analysis.

One immediate implication is that practical theology, seen in this light, has a wider field of research - especially since all church praxis now becomes its province. It also has scope for emphases other than the training of church officials.

There is a growing awareness that practical theology is not the exclusive preserve of a residential university. When Pieterse (1984:7), for example, calls it ``the theological theory of Christian communicative actions - those which transmit faith through speech, symbol and behaviour'', the emphasis shifts to the practical problem or action to be investigated, whereas learning how to preach or conduct a pastoral interview in the ``correct'' or ``accepted'' way becomes a minor issue.

2.2.2 Practical theology as a theological operational science

This increasingly prevalent view reinforces what has already been said about the teaching of practical theology. Wolfaardt (1985:60_61) concurs with Pieterse:

> Concepts which are continually present in such a view are: (i) that it operates inductively; (ii) it employs empirical methods; (iii) it operates interdisciplinarily and interscientifically; and (iv) its interpretations or analyses are made with a view to future operations.

From this angle, too, it is plain that the emphasis on what office-bearers do (or should do) in the church is waning. The praxis to be investigated comprises *all* actions by believers (whether as individuals or in groups, in or through the church) which promote the kingdom of God. Clearly the vision has broadened. This, too, has direct implications for the instruction of students.

It is already becoming clear that the way in which the subject is understood will have a direct bearing on how it is taught. That is the next question that confronts us.

3. CURRICULUM CHANGES

As we have seen, practical theology used to give its subdivisions names directly related to the offices of the church.

Altered perceptions of the nature of practical theology have brought a changed approach to its subdisciplines. For example, instead of ``homiletics'' we now speak of the operational field of ``communication'' - in the broadest possible sense of that word. In other words, we do not confine ourselves to what is meant by the word ``preaching''. There is, in fact, a general feeling that the term ``preaching'' should not be used in so general a sense. In positive terms this means that it is possible to study the communicative acts which are operative in specific sermons by specific preachers. And that is not all. The communicative dimension of a pastoral interview, liturgical act, or diaconal care - or of a Bible study group, youth group or streetwork group, for that matter - all form part of the study. Even the communicative dimensions of Christian symbols, art,

literature, films and the like are valid fields of research. The possibilities are unlimited.

This is all the more significant when one reflects that the other traditional ``disciplines'' within practical theology also become operational fields, opening up further vistas of research and instruction. For example, ``soul care'' has become the operational field of ``care'', ``liturgics'' has become ``celebration'' and ``(official) ministry'' has merged into the far wider dimension of ``diakonia'' or ``service''.

Obviously, these were not intended to be purely cosmetic changes. If we accept that, we need to ask whether they have brought about any particular change in the teaching of the subject; and the answer is an unequivocal yes. We have already touched on some of the side-effects, and the rest of the paper will be focused on this subject.

4. THE NEW PRACTICAL THEOLOGY AND DISTANCE TUITION

In the first place, students are no longer expected to attend classes on ``correct'' (pastoral) techniques. No techniques are taught, nor is the training intended to prepare students for particular offices in particular churches. Lecturers do not claim to know what would be the correct procedure for each and every student.

Secondly - and this brings us to the crux of the matter - the main concern is to teach students the scientific principles and methods inherent in the discipline, equipping them to investigate and assess any church practice that comes their way. It is a question, obviously, of exposure to and formation of practical-theological theories and the use of empirical research methods and data.

The praxis of teaching practical theology at this university has made it quite clear that distance tuition is no problem when the subject is approached in this way. Student assignments constantly attest that the theories and research methods in question, if handled scientifically, are applicable to a wide range of contexts. Students are equipped to approach their own situations critically and to make a contribution to new theological theories and ecclesiastical practices.

Another point that stands to reason is that this approach is eminently suitable for the teaching of practical theology to people in a variety of life situations. Distance tuition can reach students inside or outside South Africa, in rural, urban or other situations. It can reach people from various income groups and especially from different church backgrounds.

In practical theology, too, this teaching method is opening doors that would otherwise have remained closed. In addition lecturers are gaining access to a wide range of situations, which enhances theorisation and the discipline in general. In short, practical theology is compatible with distance tuition and distance tuition in turn promotes practical theology in a variety of ways.

An interesting by-product of this approach is the exceptional student interest in postgraduate work. The Department of Practical Theology is one of the smallest at the University, yet proportionately it has one of the largest enrolments of postgraduate students.

According to the information at our disposal, this postgraduate interest is very largely due to a realisation by students in active ministry that the basic techniques taught them by denominational seminaries are not

adequate to the work situations in which they find themselves. There is consequently a mounting demand for training in scientific situational analysis on which sound modifications in praxis can be based.

This emphasis is amply illustrated by a number of theses or dissertations already received or still awaited. For example, one student studied the extent to which a specific church of a certain denomination expressed the idea of being the body of Christ. Another pointed out the tension between freedom and formality in the liturgical development of a certain church. Yet another investigated institutionalisation in certain groups. A theory for catechesis has been worked out, and a test for the measurement of Christian commitment. Someone is studying the influence of church structures on the growth or decay of congregations, someone else is investigating shifts in the ministry of healing in the church to which he belongs. Numerous other examples could be cited, but these will suffice to indicate the interest that exists in the investigation of formerly neglected topics.

5. THE ROAD AHEAD

In the light of all this, the Department of Practical Theology is experiencing problems that intimately affect its future development. Here are some of the problems, with indications of potential solutions:

It is clear, firstly, that student interest is not confined to the university's M.Th. and D.Th. programmes. These is also a growing group who, while not specifically interested in a degree course, nonetheless want further theological training. One aspect of what they want is a type of in-service training programme - something which, because of the practical

situation, is eminently compatible with distance tuition. Of course, this does not rule out the possibility of getting these students together for longer or shorter periods.

While the need for such training is becoming ever clearer, there is no question at present of adding to the work load of the lecturing staff. One possibility might be a new centre or institute for this purpose, either within the Department of Practical Theology or run in conjunction with other departments in the Theological Faculty.

Another possibility is to retain the M.Th. degree course but to present a far more praxis-oriented version for those who would prefer it. This would mean that some students, instead of writing a dissertation, would concern themselves with a variety of praxis-oriented studies in various operational fields.

Another vital development is the increasing use of computers. Practical theology in its traditional form would never have produced this development. It should be clear from what has gone before that certain types of empirical research rely heavily on computer assistance. This means that lecturers, and some students, will need computer expertise in order to be good practical theologians. The matter is already receiving attention in the Department.

6. SUMMARY

Shifts within the discipline of practical theoloogy have created unique possibilities which make the use of distance tuition extremely promising. It is probable that the Department of Practical Theology will be able to use distance tuition in order to make an ever more valuable contribution.

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